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ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on the transferability of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance in the future tense in 10th grade German students who were learning English as a Second Language. The goal was to suggest an empirical contribution to the issue of whether implicit or explicit knowledge of grammatical rules or grammatical competence has any direct impact on its correct application in grammatical performance. Student communicative effectiveness was assessed using a passive grammar test, an implicit/explicit test, and a performance letter writing test with focus on content. Results indicate that 93.3% of students gave evidence of a transfer of competence to performance when using the English future tense, suggesting that grammar practice should be kept in a communicatively-oriented framework to make transfer easier. Test materials and quantitative data results are appended. (Contains an extensive list of references.) (NAV)

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Zulassungsarbeit zum ersten Staatsexamen für Lehramt an Gymnasien
am Institut für Didaktik der englischen Sprache und Literatur
der Ludwig Maximilians Universität München

TOPIC:

From Grammatical Competence to Grammatically Correct Performance: An Empirical Study With Regard to the English Future Tense System

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CONTENT page

1. **Introduction:** The Problem of the Transfer of Grammatical Competence to Grammatically Correct Performance, or: Why Do Students Not Apply in Performance What They Know Theoretically ?..........5- 7

2. **Theoretical Background:** Terminology and the Contribution of Foreign Language Learning Research.......................8

2.1 Competence and Performance: What Do These Terms Mean ? 8

2.1.1 Competence and Performance in Linguistics 8-12

2.1.2 Competence and Performance in Cognitive Psychology..................12-15

2.1.3 Competence and Performance in Foreign Language Teaching.......................15-24

2.2 Foreign Language Learning Theories: Is Grammatical Knowledge Transferable to Performance 24- 25

2.2.1 The Non-Interface Position..25-29

2.2.2 The Interface Position...30-32

2.2.3 The Variability Position...33-36

3. The Empirical Research Project..37

3.1 Test Population.. 37

3.2 Test Types, Test and Correction Procedures..38

3.2.1 Test and Correction Procedures..38-39

3.2.2 The Passive Grammar Test...39-40

3.2.3 The Implicit-Explicit Test 41-42

3.2.4 The Letter Writing Test...42-43

4. The Test Item "Future Tense" and Expected Test Results 43

4.1 A Brief Contrastive Look at the Future Tense Systems of German and English 44-48

4.2 Hyoptheses Concerning the Test Results in Comparison............................48-49

4.2.1 The Passive Grammar Test and the Letter Writing Test 49

4.2.2 The Implicit-Explicit Test and the Letter Writing Test 50- 52

4.2.3 Overall Comparison of all Three Tests Based on the Performance of the "Will Future" in the Conditional I "if Pattern" 52-54

4.2.4 The Three Schools and Their Overall Indication of Transferability of Competence to Performance...55

5. Results of the Analysis and Discussion..56

5.1 The Results of Each Test Type..56

5.1.1 The Passive Grammar Test as a Level of Competence..................57-61

5.1.2 The Implicit-Explicit Test as a Level of Competence....................62-65

5.1.3 The Letter Writing Test as a Level of Communicative Performance Test..66- 72

5.2 The Test Types in Relation to Each Other..73

5.2.1 The Passive Grammar and the Letter Writing Test........................73- 76

5.2.2 The Implicit-Explicit and the Letter Writing Test 77- 80

5.2.3 The Competence Tests and the Performance Test........ 80-85

5.2.4 The Three Schools and Their Overall Indication of Transferability of Competence to Performance.............................85- 88

6. Conclusion..89-91

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7. Appendix: Test Material and Additional Tables..92-109

8. Annotations..110-127

9. Abbreviations..128

10. Bibliography..129-137

1. Introduction: the Problem of Transfer of Grammatical Knowledge to Grammatically Correct Performance, or: Why Do Students Not Apply in Performance What They Know Theoretically ?

Picture students, who have hardly had a chance to listen or speak a foreign language, because they have had to spend most of their time learning and remembering grammar rules and translating from one language into the other. Would it surprise anyone, if these students had severe problems writing an essay spontaneously or communicating in the foreign language? Most likely not, because this teaching style, commonly referred to as the *Grammar Translation Method,* does not focus on communicative performance in the foreign language (FL) but emphasizes rather the acquisition of theoretical translation skills on the basis of explicit knowledge of grammatical, syntactical and lexical features. Students are mainly led towards expertise in contrastive comparisons between both languages. Consequently, their skills lie mostly in adequate conversation *about* the foreign language (metalanguage) rather than in their ability to converse spontaneously *in* the foreign language itself.[1]

This description might remind the reader of his/her Latin or Greek lessons at school. In fact, this method is still commonly applied in the instruction of today's so called "dead languages." It leads back to the Classical Roman Period from where it made its way into the 20 th century, regardless of whether the language taught was a spoken one or not. A typical example for this approach is the opinion of Robert Lado (1957:2), who popularized this method again in the 1950s and 60s for modern spoken languages under the term *contrastive analysis approach*.[2]

On the whole it seems that since the middle of the 1970s, the strictly grammar oriented approach to foreign language learning has vanished from today's classroom practices. Since then *communicative language teaching* has been the main goal for foreign language teachers. According to this approach, the students are to be provided with *communicative language skills* through learner-centered activities, without a primary focus on grammar enabling them to converse *in,* not *about* the foreign language.

As far as English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at our Bavarian *Gymnasien* (highest level of high schools in Germany) is concerned, the general guideline for the State Curriculum expresses precisely this interest, since the primary goal is

> "eine umfassende Kommunikationsfähigkeit, die Fähigkeit, auch anspruchsvolle Texte zu verstehen, und ein vertieftes Verständnis der anderen Kultur" (Amtsblatt 1992: 67)

Accordingly, our students are to acquire productive as well as receptive communicative language skills in connection with an understanding of the cultural features of the English speaking world. For this purpose the *monolingual approach* to teaching the foreign language is favored, which means that English should be the language primarily spoken in class. Moreover, the students' performance should be directed towards situational appropriateness in terms of grammatical correctness, relevant for the particular communicative contexts, and the content of information intended to be expressed. (Amtsblatt 1992: 68)

Does the demand for systematic grammar practice ("systematische Grammatikarbeit") as an elementary part of the *communicative language teaching* not run contradictory to the principles of communicative language teaching, then ? Apparently, grammar is not to play such a dominant role anymore.

One has to keep in mind that "Grammatikarbeit" does not mean teaching grammar as the grammarians did according to the *Grammar Translation Method.* At least according to curriculum guidelines, there is no direct claim for explicit, abstract knowledge of grammatical rules on the students' part . "Grammatikarbeit" is supposed to serve as a "helpful tool" for the students in their struggle to gain confidence in FL performance. Grammar should be primarily taught "inductively" so that students have a chance to discover the grammatical rules themselves rather than being n fed" with this barely digestible information (Amtsblatt 1992: 68). Grammatical proficiency should not inhibit but support spontaneous, communicative performance.

From this point of view, the role of grammar in the FL classroom today is still of great importance, even for a communicatively oriented foreign language teaching style. In research conducted by Zimmermann (1984: 40p), almost 80 % of the teachers interviewed at the time considered cognitive grammar practice as inevitable. About 60 % of their classroom time was spent on it and 50% of the teachers interviewed often devoted several consecutive hours to the teaching of grammar. This shows that in teaching practice grammatical knowledge is believed to be useful. Thus, cognitive grammar practice is considered transferable to communicative performance.

If grammar, according to theory and research, is supposed to be such a " helpful tool," how can the following familiar classroom situation, also referred to by Nina Garrett (1986:133), be understood?

A certain grammatical structure has been explained to the students several times and has been practiced as well. The students perform correctly, as long as only awareness/understanding of the structure in grammar drills and tests has to be proved. However, they keep making grammar errors5 over and over again as soon as they are asked to apply their theoretical knowledge to a creative task such as writing down some ideas, or communicating freely with a classmate. Since they can recall the rules, it is obviously not a lack of grammatical knowledge that causes the problem. The grammatical " input", that is the given information must have been transferred to "intake", the information then stored in the long term memory of the brain (Glover et. al. 1990: 71 pp).

Why do or can they not transfer their theoretically acquired grammatical knowledge to a communicative performance task? Do they suffer from a foreign language learning deficiency (Schulz 1990: 17 pp)? Are Francois Gouin, Steven Krashen and Hans-Eberhard Piepho 6 right after all in claiming that knowledge of grammar does not directly lead to correct communicative performance? Or are there other factors involved which have not been emphasized clearly enough by curriculum developers and teacher trainers of foreign language teachers at the Gymnasium ?

This controversial question concerning the transferability of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance is the focus of this paper. Since " only performance is observable " and it is "only through performance that competence can be ... evaluated" (Savignon 1972:9). Chapters 3 to 5 of this paper will attempt to provide an empirical contribution to the intensely debated issue of whether implicit or explicit knowledge of grammatical rules (grammatical competence) has in fact any direct impact on its correct application in performance (grammatical performance). The question remaining is to what extent grammatical competence positively influences the actual grammatical performance. The theoretical background of this issue is dealt with in Chapter 2.

In the analysis section the use of the "future tense" as a typical source of grammatical errors of German students at the Gymnasium will be of interest. Three different kinds of tests will be analyzed: one performance test with focus on content, where students have to write a response letter to an English pen-pal and two competence tests with focus on grammatical forms. The first one, referred to as the "passive grammar test", is a multiple choice exam. The second one, called the "implicit/explicit test", focuses on the what kind of knowledge is available to the testee in a grammar based test such as this one. All three tests were given to 10th graders at three different Gymnasien in Bavaria as part of "Project VI" of the "Learner Language" Project conducted by Professor Dr. Karl Heinz Hecht in Munich, in cooperation with Professor Peter Green in York, England.7

2. Theoretical Background: Terminology and the Contribution of Foreign Language Learning Research

This chapter will offer a brief insight into the theoretical background in order to show the relevance of the question of transfer of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance. My first objective is the understanding of the terms *competence* and *performance* in the field of linguistics, cognitive psychology and language learning research, where the highly controversial issue of native language, second language, and foreign language learning processes are discussed. Secondly, the question of the transferability of theoretical knowledge into performance will be dealt with.

2.1 Competence and Perforrnance: What Do These Terms Mean ?

A close look at the definitions of the terms *competence* and *performance* in regard to their most relevant areas of influence, linguistics, psychology and language learning research, offer a rough sketch of the historical development from a strictly linguistic understanding of the terms to a more flexible "integrative view" will be provided. All three areas have influenced each other, so that the change in definition of the terms can be seen as one going from theoretical linguistics in general to applied linguistics in particular. Since the latter not only pays attention to strictly linguistic issues, but also to research results from social psychology and cognitive psychology, the terms cover a wider range of aspects now than they did in their early days.

2.1.1. Competence and Performance in Linguistics

In twentieth century linguistics, **Noam Chomsky's** definition of *competence* and *performance* has been of major influence on the history of synchronic linguistics. Contrary to general belief however, he was not the first linguist to develop a theory of competence 8. In his work Sprachkompetenz of 1988, **Eugenio Coseriu** points out that he did so in 1955, long before Chomsky's Aspects of Theory and Svntax was published in 1965. Coseriu's approach can be summarized as follows: He speaks of three levels of competence, each one interrelated to a different kind of knowledge. In this way, *elocutionary knowledge* is linked with *general competence*, *idiomatic knowledge* with *individual competence* and *expressive knowledge* with *text competence*. Coseriu defines *competence* as a person's ability to be creative which implies the inventive creation of culture and language. Native speakers' spontaneous speech performance in every day life situations provided him wiih analysis material 9.

As opposed to Eugenio Coseriu, **Noam Chomsky's** theory about *competence* and *performance* focuses on a division between language as a theoretical system (competence) and language in use (performance). This theoretical division relates back to Saussure's terms *langue* and *parole* 10. Also, contrary to **Bloomfield's and Skinner's** interest in the description of spoken language as *verbal behavior* per se (Bloomfield in: Chastain 1976: 133, Skinner 1957), Chomsky was interested in the theoretical description of *language as* a *system of rules*. According to these rules, the speaker of a language is not only able to understand all expressions, but also to produce an unlimited amount of correct sentences on the basis of a limited number of grammatical structures. He refers o these abilities as the language acquisition device (LAD), innate in every human being 11. The subject in focus was an

> Ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.
> (Chomsky 1965:3)

Consequently, criteria such as dialectal or sociolectal speech varieties, as well as psychological aspects of language production were not taken into consideration by Chomsky. As to the notion of *competence* and *performance*, he points out a

> fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language) and performance, the actual use of language in concrete situations.
> (Chomsky 1965: 4)

Hence, *competence* relates to nothing but theoretical, that is grammatical, knowledge, whereas *performance* stands for the actual application of this knowledge in speech actions. For Chomsky, *competence* refers to *grammaticalness* as *performance* does to *acceptability* (Chomsky 1965:11). *Competence* is then synonymous with grammatical knowledge, the cognitive mastery of an abstract system of rules. A language performance, in spoken or written form, is seen from the point of view of *competence* . It represents either an individual deviation from the system, or a small selection of what could be possible as well, according to *competence* *potentials* of the language. A verbal presentation can be unacceptable even though it is grammatically correct, as is the case with an incomprehensibly long sentence such as

> That is the dog that killed the cat which had caught the rat which had killed the mouse which had stolen the cheese.
>
> (Chomsky 196S:10)

This dichotomy of *competence* and *performance* has given rise to **criticism.** Coseriu, for instance, argues (1988: 52) that Chomsky's criterion *acceptability* as a norm of *performance* could be understood as an element of *competence,* since *acceptability* represents one of the levels of *correctness.* In other words, truly correct is only what is acceptable according to the norm and the grammar rules. Consequently, according to Coseriu, Chomsky fails to make a precise distinction between the two criteria12. As a result, there is no real need to differentiate between the terms *competence* and *performance,* since *performance* can be seen as an inherent part of *competence.*

For Chomsky though, this *ability* to perform correctly is not part of *competence,* since *competence* would have to be a flexible element. This is not the case according to his theory. *Competence* is the product of a number of cognitive skills unique to human kind, referred to as the LAD, which represents a static, invariable cognitive structure that we apparently are born with.

Furthermore, Chomsky's theory lacks the specification of how *competence* is acquired and how we come to use its sources. Additionally, since his research targets were only "perfectly competent" native speakers, no assumption can be made of either first language acquisition of children or foreign or second language acquisition 13.

Finally, the criticism of sociolinguists, mainly of **Dell Hymes** and his associates, pushed the understanding of *competence* out of its narrow confinement as strictly grammatical knowledge. Hymes argued that Chomsky's rigid linguistic concept was lacking the consideration of such pragmatic aspects as already introduced by J. L. **Austin** in 1962. Austin had claimed in his *speech act theory* that the smallest unit for an utterance is not the word or sentence as a grammatical structure as such, but the *speech act.* During this act, several elements of communication were seen in a simultaneous interplay. Social elements were already the focus of speech: intention of speech, situational context and non-verbal background knowledge of speaker and recipient. (Bußmann 1983: 497)14

Thus, from the very beginning, Chomsky's concept of *competence* and *performance* was in dispute, since Austin and Searle's *speech act theory* saw language performance not as a skill of perfect control over grammatical features alone. It was considered rather a result of an interplay of variable social and linguistic factors. Obviously, the time for a constructive criticism and emergence of a different concept came in the 1970s with Dell Hymes and his colleagues. They again drew attention to the neglected aspect of pragmatics. Hymes coined a new term which was to have a revolutionary influence on the field of linguistics as well as foreign language teaching: *communicative competence.*

Before we take a closer look at *communicative competence,* it is essential to point out that in 1980 the above mentioned criticism caused Chomsky to extend his definition of *competence* by a new aspect called *pragmatic competence,* which is to serve as a link between *grammatical competence* and *performance:*

> The grammar of language characterizes the instrument, determining intrinsic physical and semantic properties of every sentence. The grammar thus expresses grammatical competence. A system of rules and principles constituting pragmatic competence determines how the tool can effectively.
>
> (Chomsky 1980 224)

As a result, the Chomskyan term *competence* included from then on, at least in theory, knowledge of socially appropriate use of language features in concrete situations as well.

Though Hymes also sees the dichotomy of *competence* and *performance* as the basis for language, united in the concept of *communicative competence,* (Hymes 1972: 281), there are still a great number of disagreements apparent between his and Chomsky's understanding of the two terms. The aspect of *ability,* for instance, remains excluded from Chomsky's new concept of *competence.* Moreover, the "static" character of Chomsky's *competence* refers to an individual speaker not considering the social aspect of utterances between speaker and hearer, nor the context (environment, situation, social roles) or register and style. Such an approach would again call for a variable/flexible concept of competence dependent on the context of situation. Hymes, however, demands precisely this with the following words:

> He or she (the native speaker, comment E.S.) acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about **with whom, when, where, in what manner.** (emphasis E . S .)
>
> (Hymes 1972: 277)

Another marked difference between both linguistic theories can be seen in Hymes' disagreement with Chomsky about the actual components of *communicative competence* . In accordance with **Campell and Wales** (in: Canale/ Swain 1980: 1-47), Hymes claims that "there are several sectors of communicative competence, of which the grammatical is one." (Hymes 1972: 281) The whole complex consists of rules of language use, sociolinguistic and contextual competence as well as grammatical competence (Hymes 1972: 281). Many linguists and language learning theorists basically share this "anti-Chomskyan," "integrative view" of *communicative* *competence,* for example **Savignon** (1972: 8), **Canale/Swain** (1980a) 15 **Fearch/Kasper** (1985) 16, **Hüllen** (1976: 11), Doje (1986: 12) and Campell/Wales in Canale/Swain 1980).

It has to be maintained, nevertheless, that the common rejection of Chomsky's dual concept of *competence* and *performance* did not result in total agreement on the components of *communicative competence.* As Canaille and Swain state, there was no clear understanding among researchers in the 1970s as to "whether or not the notion of *communicative competence* included grammatical competence... " (Canaille 1983: 4, in: Omega 1986:3). Also, Cm (1984) points out that depending on the context, need and target group, *communicative competence* can mean something totally different. In fact, a great variety of understandings of *communicative competence* still exists. This particular aspect will be considered again in regard to *communicative competence* as a language teaching approach (Chapter 2.1.3).

For these reasons concept of *competence* and *performance* could not be maintained and has therefore been replaced by that of *communicative competence.* It has also become apparent that there has never been and probably never will be a unilateral understanding of *competence, performance* or *communicative competence* .

2.1.2 Competence and Performance in Cognitive Psychology

R W. **White** first introduced the term *competence* to psychology. In 1959 he defined it as the general ability of an organism to interact successfully with its environment. *Competence is* not referred to as a universal state of mind as suggested by Chomsky's LAD, but as a dynamic system of skills which enable a person to interact appropriately within his/her environment.

> In this tradition, then, competence is clearly associated with 'skills' and 'capacity' and there is little suggestion of 'mental state'.
>
> (White in: Taylor 1988:160)

As in linguistics, psychology addresses biological and social competence. In accordance with Chomsky's theory, we find a fundamental distinction between mental capacity (competence) and its concrete realization in skills (performance) 17.

In viewing the history of psychology it has become apparent that a shift from behavioristic psychology to cognitive psychology has taken place. Cognitive psychology developed out of a counter-reaction towards **behaviorist psychology** and its most famous representatives **B. F. Skinner and L. Bioomfield.** According to the behaviorist school of psychology in the 1950s and 60s, the mind at birth resembled a *tabula rasa,* a blank table which had to be "set" with information. As any other process of acquiring knowledge, learning a language was considered a process of *habit formation* by means of *conditioning*, since it was based on mechanistic interaction of *stimulus* and *response*. Language learning was a matter of practice; anything less than *overlearning* was considered useless. (in: Chastain 1976: 104/133) This psychological theory, which manifested itself in the 1950s/60s in the *audio-lingual*, or *American teaching method*, related *communicative competence* to the mastery of skills linked with appropriate behavior 18. Following this approach, *competence* contains a social component just like Hymes' definition.

As opposed to the rationalist, behaviorist doctrine, cognitive psychology believes in a **mentalistic and dynamic system** of learning. Rather than being subconsciously implanted into a "tabula rasa-mind" by means of "parroting drills", knowledge is acquired by means of active participation of learners in a meaningful learning process. It includes perception, acquisition, organization and storage of information so that the newly acquired knowledge can become an active part of the student' s cognitive structure. This way, learning has to have more meaning and purpose for the learner than a successful parroting performance (Omaggio 1986: 27).

In general it is believed that problems cannot be solved without a strong knowledge base. Knowledge is not only the "stuff of our memories" but creates our perceptions and directs our attention. It is "at the core of human condition" (Glover et. al. 1990: 13). In contrast with the non-scientific understanding of the notion of ***knowledge***, *knowledge* does also not just imply a certain level of consciousness about a piece of information stored in the brain (Tönshoff 1990: 27)19, as will become clear in the following description of the concept of memory types in cognitive psychology:

Contemporary cognitive psychologists **David Neves** and **John Anderson** have developed a theory of ***knowledge compilation*** . They propose that knowledge acquisition takes place in three steps:

1. **encoding** : a set of facts is committed to memory
2. **proceduralization** : encoded,*declarative knowledge is* turned into *pro-cedures* so that *declaratlve knowledge* becomes *procedural knowledge*
3. **composition:** the process in which procedures are being made faster with practice.

(Glover et. al. 1990: 20 pp; Anderson 1990)

Consequently, cognitive psychology does not see the mind as a *tabula rasa* in the behaviorist sense, nor as an invariable source of an innate *grammatical competence* in the

Chomskyan sense. It is considered rather to be a dynamic element which undergoes various cognitive processes during a learning process.

Different levels of knowledge are defined in the transfer process from stored to actively applicable knowledge, as the terms mentioned above show. **Declarative knowledge,** also called **explicit memory** (Anderson 1990: 217) is stored in the *long term memory* and can only be retrieved for a performance task via activation as procedural knowledge (*proceduralization*). *Declarative knowledge* is also referred to as the knowledge about facts and things *("knowing that"),* whereas **procedural knowledge**, also occasionally referred to as **implicit memory** (Anderson 1990: 217), means knowing how to perform cognitive activities *("knowing how").* So, this is the foundation knowledge on which *performance* rests. It can consist of psychomotoric skills such as swimming or purely mentalistic processes such as citing a poem in your mind. The task of *implicit memory* is to select certain elements of *declarative knowledge* and to combine them effectively for the given situational context to prevent the mental capacity for processing information from being exhausted. The less conscious participation and concentration there is with regard to an activity, the easier it is to gain access to *procedural knowledge.* These two categories of memory, the *declarative* and the *procedural knowledge,* are always pointed out by researchers (Anderson 1990: 217). In regard to the variability position on language acquisition, explained in chapter 2.2.3, it is important to note again that Anderson assumes a gradual development from a *declarative stage* of knowledge via an *associative stage,* in which methods for performing the skill are worked out and the explicit knowledge is transformed into a procedural form, to the final third *autonomous stage,* in which retrieving knowledge becomes more and more implicit. (Anderson cit. in Möhle/Raupach 1989: 199). Thus, this system accounts for transferability of *competence* to *performance.* 20 (Tönshoff 1990: 27 pp; Anderson 217 pp).

From the information provided in this chapter so far, it can be concluded that together, cognitive psychology and theoretical linguistics support the hypothesis of the transferability of competence to performance on the basis of a dual knowledge system with transitional interstages. Additionally, it can be summarized that in psychology, *declarative knowledge* and *procedural knowledge* refer to skills which help to solve a given problem. The social component is stressed. In linguistics, the terms *competence* and *performance* were used to describe language as a human ability in general. They do not relate to behavior but deal with language features only. The social aspect has been taken into consideration by sociolinguists and, since 1980, even by Chomsky.

It may be emphasized at this point that the psychological terms *declarative* and *procedural knowledge,* first introduced to foreign language acquisition research in 1984 by **Faerch and Kasper,** have, in fact, often been used in Applied Linguistics ever since. Among the theorists who rely on the psychological terminology are, for instance, **Robert Gagne** (in: Kennedy 1988:480 p/ Glover et. al. 1990: 64 p), **Barbara Kennedy** herself (1988), and **Benjamin**

Bloom (Glover et.al. 1990 64 p) as well as **Fearch/ Kasper** (1984: 215 pp, 1985: 170 pp) and **Kasper** (1986). Sometimes these two types of memory are given different names as well l, as for example by **Cohen** (1989: 47 p). He termed the explicit, "knowing that" memory *propositional knowledge,* whereas the implicit, automatic "knowing how" memory remained *procedural knowledge.* **Sorace** (1985: 252) also speaks of *procedural knowledge,* but refers to *declarative knowledge* as *formal knowledge.* **Sharwood Smith** (1985: 104/109) differentiates along those lines between *knowledge* and *control* . **Bialystok** (1979: 97) and **Odlin** (1986: 123 pp) use the terms *implicit* and *explicit knowledge* and **Schneider/Shiffrin** (1977) as well as **Mc Laughlin** (1990/1983: 139) differentiate between *conrolled* and *automatic knowledge.* **Krashen** (1982: IS p/1987), dealt with in detail later, makes a difference between *unconscious acquisition* and *conscious learning processes.* In general, all these terms stand for the original dichotomy of *declarative* and *procedural knowledge,* even if the phenomenon is explained in different ways, because it is connected with different models. Apppendix A provides an overview of the diversity of terminology concerned with the types of knowledge.

2.1.3 Competence and Performance in Foreign Language Teaching

The notion of *competence and performance* discussed in linguistics and psychology, is reflected in the history of foreign language teaching as well. Due to a critical confrontation with Chomsky's concept of *competence* a and *performance* as well as Skinner's behaviorist psychology, a path was cleared for a new era of psychology, namely **cognitive psychology.** Also two new branches of linguistics, **pragmalinguistics** (Austin, Searle et.al.) **and sociolinguistics** (Hymes et.al.) came into existence. New teaching practices and language acquisition theories were nourished by their appearance 21.

The concepts of *competence* and *performance* in foreign language teaching would be incomplete without considering **teaching practice** (methodology) and **language learning theory**, both of which are relevant here. Drastic changes in these areas can be traced back to the 1970s. Ever since, there has been a definite shift from language learning as a grammatical drilling parade - fairly isolated from the reality of spoken language and with complex contrastive analysis of target and mother tongue as an essential part of learning *(grammar translation method)*- towards language learning as a psychological and socially interactive phenomenon with focus on speaking the language in real situations. It became common belief that a strict division of knowledge into theoretical competence and active performance was ineffective. *Communicative competence* replaced Chomsky's *grammatical competence.*

Before focusing the discussion of the concept of *competence* and *performance* among language learning theorists, the impact this new approach actually had on **foreign language teaching practice** should be considered. Among others, supporters of pragma-didactics8 like Hans-Eberhard **Piepho and Habermas**22 primarily wanted to challenge foreign language students' communicative skills, necessary for appropriate social interaction with native speakers. Grammaticalness in the Chomskyian sense was not a goal anymore. It was only important in as much as grammatical incorrectness could cause a native speaker to misunderstand the verbal contribution of a non-native speaker. Provocative claims made by Hans-Eberhard Piepho's "Teach the language without grammar ! Only the function of the utterance is important, neither its grammatical structures nor its underlying rules! ", are representative of the new approach (personal conversation Dießen, Jan. 30, 1993). As a result, the *Audio-Lingual Teaching Method* of the 50s and 60 s, based on Chomsky' s *taxonomic structuralism* and Skinner's *behaviorism,* are now considered inappropriate as teaching styles - despite the fact that the learners were confronted with L 2- simulated situations, that oral performance was of primary concern and that language patterns where taught inductively. The crucial point was that the drill exercises conducted in class or in the language laboratory, exclusively constructed for this purpose, mainly trained grammatical expertise and not free and creative performance in the foreign language (Weinrich 1985: 227)23.

After the originally linguistic term *communicative competence,* created by Hymes, successfully established itself in language learning didactics, Pit Corder demanded in 1973 that students had better become more than just "competent" grammatical experts according to Chomsky. He proposed:

> It is probably unnecessary to point out that when we are teaching a second language we are trying to develop in the learner not just grammatical competence in the Chomskyan sense, communicative competence. We are teaching him not only what we call the 'formation rules' of the language, but in addition what Hymes has called the 'speaking rules'. The learner must, ..., develop the ability to produce and understand grammatical utterances, he must be able to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences, but he must also know when to select a particular grammatical sequence, the one which is appropriate to the context, linguistic and situational. (Corder 1973:93)

In the following years a great number of **teaching methods** originated from this new orientation. In general, they were referred to as either the *cognitive* or *humanistic approaches.* According to results in cognitive psychology, general criteria for effective language learning in this new tradition were:

- The student' s *cognitive control* over rules of L 2 is almost as limited as a native speaker's

- *Progression* has to move from the *known to* the *unknown* and the tasks given should facilitate creative use of L 2/ FL.
- The *method* has to be *multisensory* and vary in style to do justice to individual learning differences. (Chastain 1976, in: Omaggio 1986: 66/7)
- The assignments should ideally always be *learner-centered* and stimulate *meaningful performance* on the part of the learners. This cannot be guaranteed by means of repetitive drill exercises in the behaviorist tradition or by means of exercises with nonsense syllables. (Selinker 1972: 210)

Among these cognitive and communicatively oriented teaching methods are:

- the ***communicative language learning*** approach, developed by Charles Curran in 1976 in reference to psychological counseling techniques24,
- ***Suggestopedia,*** a holistic language learning method developed by the Bulgarian Georgi Losanov in 1978 25,
- the ***Silent Way***, a cognitively oriented method introduced by Galtegno 26
- James Asher' s ***Total Physical Response*** 27, and
- Krashen and Terrells' ***Natural Approach*** which is based on the assumption that students learn a foreign language best, if they are exposed to it in a stressfree situation similar to L 1 or L 2 learning conditions. All knowledge is to be acquired subconsciously like a native speaker, because consciously acquired knowledge can never be applied to language performance. (further details on the theory the method is based on: Krashen 1978, Krashen/Terrell 1983)28

All these approaches to language teaching collectively focus again not primarily on the achievement of linguistic competence but on *communicative competence* (details: Krashen 1978,1981). Therefore, the following definition of communicative *competence* by Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell can be considered a common guideline for all the above mentioned foreign language learning methods. According to them *communicative competence* implies

> .... that a student can understand the essential points of what a native speaker says to him in a real communication situation and can respond in such a way that the native speaker interprets the response with little or no effort and without errors that are so distracting that they interfere drastically, ... If we are to raise our expectations for oral competence in communication, we must lower our expectations for structural accuracy.
>
> (Krashen/Terrell 1977: 326)

As has been demonstrated, a great variety of teaching methods are based on the desire to provide students with **communicative competence.** For many language teachers this common goal has indeed been a meaningful improvement. But there is a discrepancy in what goes on in the classroom and what is discussed in academic debates. Therefore, **discussions** on the subject of teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language show a marked difference of opinion in regard to *communicative competence,* partly due to an overwhelming diversity of definitions 29. The following versions of the theoretical understanding of the concept of *communicative competence* are to serve as representative examples.

Some researchers and methodologists associate the term communicative competence more with Chomsky's point of view in as much as it is "meant to refer to the knowledge of how the language system is realized as used in social contexts..." (Widdowson 1978: 163). Others, such as **Littlewood** (1979), **Hecht/Waas** (1984) and **Carroll** (1980) do not see a necessity to differentiate between communicative competence and communicative performance, because the "knowledge and ability for use composes a unity within the speaker" (Hecht/Waas 1984: 12). And for **Carroll** (1966:102) there need not be a distinction, because the facility to apply grammatical knowledge in meaningful situations, will develop automatically. Of yet another opinion is **Melenk** (1977: 5). According to his theory there are three levels of competence: the syntactical (grammatical/lexical structures), the semantic (meaning), and the pragmatic level(intention of interaction). Only the latter, the ability to interact verbally in an appropriate manner, is related to the term communicative competence. Grammatical knowledge as well as linguistic competence, are excluded from the pragmatic level of communicative competence, because both belong to the syntactical level of competence. The same is true for the semantic level, because it refers to lexical competence. Consequently, for Melenk communicative competence is a skill not only characteristic of the foreign language classroom, but quantifies rather as a general "motivation" and 'enabling skill to master life in all situations' due to sociological training (Melenk 1977: 9). Table 1 provides a systematic overview of Melenk's concept of competence:

Table 1: *Melenk's theory of competence*

THREE LEVELS

syntactical competence	**semantic competence**	**pragmatic competence**
↓	↓	↓
ability to use grammatical verbally structures correctly manner	ability to use the appropriate vocabulary	ability to interact in an appropriate
↓	↓	↓
grammatical competence	***lexical competence***	***communicative competence***

(E. Schneider)

Another concept of communicative competence is offered by one of Germany's very widely known representatives of pragmadidactics, **Hans-Eberhard Piepho**, who adapted a concept by Habermas (Kasper 1981: 4 p). In his model communicative competence is not only linked with behavioral skill but contains verbal expression skills as well. Piepho's model presents an hierarchical system in which communicative competence is set above linguistic *competence* (Piepho 1974: 16). So he argues:

> Oberstes Ziel ist es, daß der Schüler bestimmten Situationen kommunikativ gewachsen ist. Auf der zweiten Lernebene beweist der Schüler seine Performanzfähigkeit, kommunikativ handelnd oder diskursiv reflektierend, sprachliche Mittel erfolgreich zu verwenden. Erst an der dritten Stelle ... wird die linguistische Kompetenz, also die Problematik grammatischer und stilistischer Normen genannt. (Piepho 1974: 35 p)

Since *communicative competence* generally implies a high degree of knowledge acquired by intensive training in order to be able to perform with expert correctness and facility, *communicative competence is* mostly used synonymously with ***communicative proficiency*** (Omaggio 1986:1). This term covers not only the linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge of the foreign language, but also the skill to transfer passive, theoretical knowledge into active performance. For instance, the ACTFL commission (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) developed an entire system according to which students *communicative proficiency* is measured depending on their level of performance rather than of theoretical, grammatical competence. Published for the first time in 1982, it presented for each of the four language skills, namely reading, writing, speaking and listening, a distinction based on the following three interrelated criteria: context, function and accuracy (Omaggio 1986: 12). Appendix B shows the proficiency rating scales for oral performance (Omaggio 1986: 15)30.

Due to the particular focus on performance, **David Taylor** (1988: 166 p) suggests the use of the term ***communicative performance*** instead of *communicative proficiency.* He differentiates between three stages in a foreign language learning and production process. First, there is a mental stage of static, grammatical competence in the Chomskyan sense. The second stage implies the skill to apply this theoretical, static knowledge to active speech production. This is referred to as *proficiency.* Thirdly, there is the actual speech production, the *performance* itself, which is preceded by *proficiency.* Since in Chomsky's revised "three stage-model", *pragmatic competence* holds the middle position and determines "how the tool (grammatical knowledge) can effectively be put into use (performance)" (Chomsky 1980: 224), Taylor's and Chomsky's models could be considered as equal in structure, as is illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: *Taylor' s concept of competence and performance in comparison with Chomsky's latest concept (1980)*

TAYLOR

competence	**proficiency**	**performance**
↓	↓	↓
acquired state of knowledge	appropriate use of competence	appropriate application of proficiency

CHOMSKY

competence	**pragmatic competence**	**performance**
↓	↓	↓
static state of knowledge	appropriate use of competence	appropriate application of competence/ theory of use

(E. Schneider)

The last language learning concept of *competence* and *performance*, finding detailed consideration, will serve as a theoretical basis for this paper. As previously mentioned, foreign language learning researchers **Karl-Heinz Hecht** (University of Munich, Germany) and **Peter Green** (University of York, England) have been conducting a research project called "Learner Language", focusing on grammatical competence and its actual applicability in practice for more than ten years. Their results have led them to conclude that *competence* in a foreign language resembles a consistently **developing mental grammar** which *includes* the ability to use this theoretical knowledge actively (Hecht/Green 1989a: 574)31.

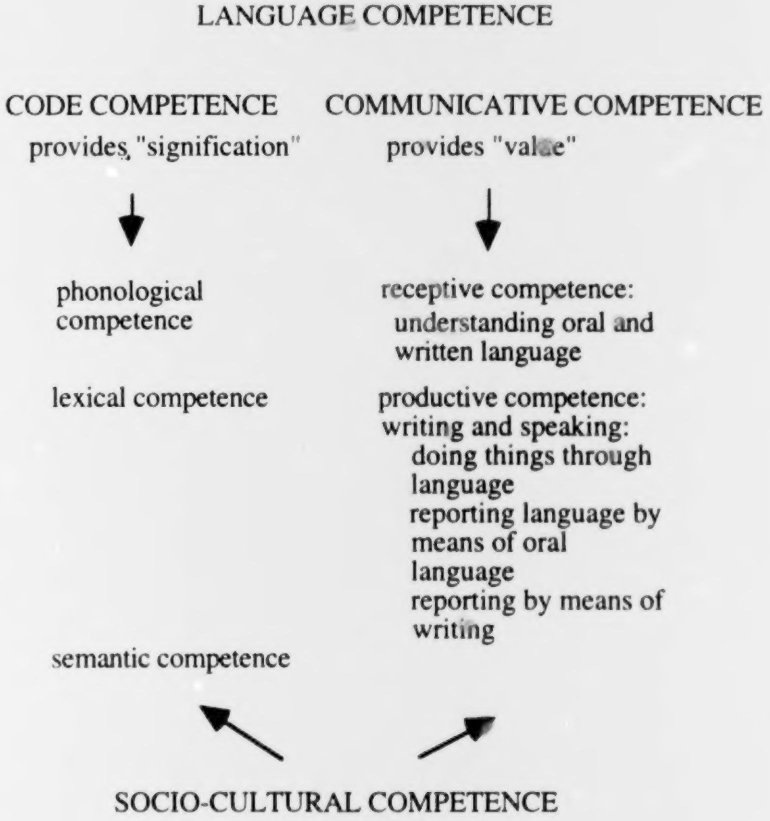
Consequently, the traditional Chomskyan understanding of the competence/ performance dichotomy had to make room for a concept that differentiates within one 'duplex notion' of competence. On the one hand there is the theoretically available ability to transfer the acquired knowledge (phonological, lexical, grammatical and semantic competence), the "knowing what", referred to as *code competence;* on the other hand there is the *communicative competence,* that is "knowing how to produce language", which transmits values and consists of receptive and productive competence. The latter can be divided into three different "sub-competences" again:

- "doing things through language",
- reporting by means of language" (orally) and
- reporting by means of writing

Here, *communicative competence* refers to the actual performance. Socio-cultural knowledge belongs to both, the *code competence* and *communicative competence* sub-competence. This provides evidence of the fact that in a normal communicative situation, all types of competence come to an interplay simultaneously, thus demonstrating the learner's level of knowledge. This model represents an intercircular network of competences which make clear differentiations between competence and performance appear as nuisance (Hecht /Waas 1984: 12 pp)32.

This concept does, however, encourage further research on the connection of mentally present grammatical knowledge and the ability/skill to apply this knowledge when trying to solve communicative language tasks. It also allows us to gain insight into the level of *competence* via results in *performance* productions. Table 3 provides a systematic overview of the concept.

Table 3: *Hecht's competence model*



LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

CODE COMPETENCE
provides "signification"

phonological
competence

lexical competence

semantic competence

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE
provides "value"

receptive competence:
understanding oral and
written language

productive competence:
writing and speaking:
doing things through
language
reporting language by
means of oral
language
reporting by means of
writing

SOCIO-CULTURAL COMPETENCE

(E. Schneider adapted from Hecht/Waas 1984:9pp)

Since professor Hecht's and professor Green's concept of competence and performance provides the foundation for this paper, differences between their understanding and Chomsky's are considered important enough to be pointed out again. Chomsky's notion of *competence* and *performance* lacks Hecht and Green's criteria of flexibility and gradual development in relation to the period of exposure to the foreign language. Furthermore, Chomsky's concept leaves no room for individual differences, because he bases his theory on a fictitious, ideal listener/hearer. He also does not consider *competence* as the ability to use the language and to transfer grammatical knowledge into actual speech performance either. Also, Hecht/Green base their notion of competence on data achieved by analyzing performance, whereas Chomsky evaluated *performance* on the basis of a theoretically ideal *competence.* On the whole, Chomsky's dichotomy of *competence* and *performance* is part of a systematic, theoretical language description, whereas Hecht/Green and Waas are primarily interested in the practical language use of learners. Therefore, their concept, as that of any other language acquisition researcher, has to be different, because it has to represent concrete language learning reality.

The theoretical discussion among language learning researchers and methodologists did not hold back with **criticism** either. For instance, Michael **Swan** dislikes about the **communicative approach** what he calls the "tabula rasa attitude" towards the students' abilities to transfer communicative skills from L 1 to FL. He also points at the fallaciousness of the whole system, when the teacher overloads the students with knowledge far beyond their needs. Both attitudes can lead to inefficiency of approach. He also finds it somewhat extreme to have to ban all questions and exercises from the classroom which cannot be labeled "authentic' simply because the language classroom can never be the real outside world. (Swan 1985 a:lOp/Swan 1985 b: 83/85). Anita **Pincas** stresses this aspect as well and maintains that "... no course, however well instructed, should claim to do more than provide the basic skills for future language competence."(Pincas 1979:31). Additionally, **Freudenstein** emphasizes (1981: 61 pp) that communicative language learning cannot be successful without "grammatische Baukästen" and that the learning material too often lacks the authenticity required by pragmadidacts.

It can be summarized, that the discussion of *competence* and *performance* and in particular *communicative competence* since the 1970s has not been limited to the terminological variations presented. It is hoped that Chapter 2.1 has provided a clear outline of the general development from*competence* as a strictly grammar-oriented knowledge type to the more complex one of *communicative competence.* Depending on the approach, *performance* was an integral part of competence as in the case of *communicative competence.* All theories presented by linguistics, cognitive psychology and foreign language teaching functioned on the premise of transferability of *competence* (theory) to *performance* (use of theory), the only exception being

Krashen and his *natural approach method.* The next chapter (2.2) will provide some answers concerning the question of whether there is in fact such a thing as " transferability of competence to performance" and if so, how it can be explained.

2.2 Foreign Language Learning Theories: Is Grammatical Competence Transferable to Performance ?

The main goal of foreign and second language learning theorists is to describe the categories which constitute the learners ***interlanguage*** at any point in development. Additionally, they are interested in finding the reasons why learners develop certain linguistic categories. Rutherford emphasizes this with the following words as follows:

> We wish to know what it is that is acquired, how it is acquired and when it is acquired. But were we to have the answers even to these questions, we would still want to know why ...
>
> (Rutherford 1982: 85)

As different as the approaches presented below may be, they are all based on the assumption that students go through a system of developmental language stages, when trying to produce meaningful performance. These stages are neither defined by errors from interference with the native language nor by interference errors due to influence from the target language. This phenomenon, discovered as a result of error analysis, was labeled ***interlanguage*** by Selinker in 1972. It is similarly referred to as *idiosyncratic dialect* (Corder 1971/1967) or *approximative system* by Nemser (1971)[33]. The term *interlanguage* either relates to the system a learner constructs at a single state of development *(an interlanguage),* or to a series of inter-locking systems which are characteristic for the acquisition process. Thirdly, it can refer to certain kinds of language combinations between L1 and the target language (Ellis 1986: 47 pp./299)[34].
The problem of *fossilization* occurs, when the gradual progression to a more elaborate/complex meaningful performance in the foreign or second language is and remains interrupted for certain reasons. (Selinker 1972: 215). Krashen refers to this phenomenon explicitly in his *affective filter hypothesis.*

In the previous chapter I have mentioned that language learning theorist differentiate between two kinds of knowledge. *Procedural knowledge is* a generally automatized, implicit kind of memory, whereas *declarative knowledge is* mostly consciously controlled and can be verbalized (also Hecht/ Hadden 1992: 32). To what extent these two types of stored information are transferable to correct performance is a controversial issue in Second Language Acquisition Research. The following three different approaches will illustrate the debate over the transferability of grammatical knowledge to performance: the **non-interface, the interface** and the **variability position**35.

2.2.1 The Non-Interface Position

Representatives of the so-called **non-interface position** doubt that teaching grammar rules explicitly is useful for correct language performance, due to the basic assumption that declarative, explicit knowledge of grammatical and other foreign language features cannot be used in actual language performance, because there is no connection between *declarative* and *procedural* knowledge.

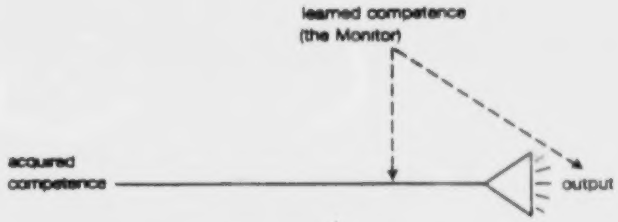
A relatively small group of researchers defends this position. Among its members are Lightbown (1983), Lewicki/ Czyzeweska/Hoffman (1987), Felix (1987), Terrell (1991) and Mukattash (1986), who argue along the same lines as the most famous defender of the non-interface position, namely **Stephen Krashen.** His *Monitor Model* of foreign language acquisition consists of five hypotheses which will be sketched briefly. It can be called a **"dual competence" theory**, because a learner's knowledge of FL or L2, presented in variable performance, is classified according to two separately stored competences: *acquisition* and *learning* (first hypothesis)36.

Krashen states that, while *acquisition* occurs subconsciously, when a learner participates in natural communication where understanding the context is of primary concern, *learning* takes place as a result of conscious study of formal language features such as syntactical or grammatical issues. Both are stored in different areas of the left hemisphere of the brain. *Acquired,* in contrast to *learned knowledge* is available for automatic processing as is necessary for spontaneous language performance. *Learned knowledge* is only applicable for controlled processing by activating the *monitor,* a conscious correction device. According to Krashen, acquired knowledge can never turn into learned knowledge (Krashen 1978: 86), because each one is stored in different sections of the brain. The fact that some students perform 'native like' without ever having "learned" language rules and others know the rules but cannot produce error-free performance, serves Krashen as proof of his assumption. He explains that the second phenomenon, referred to in this paper's introduction as well, only occurs, when the learned rule is still beyond the acquirer's comprehension capability (1978: 10 pp./ 86, see also input hypothesis). Since for Krishna grammar equals "conscious learning" which, in his opinion, can only be used as a

Monitor, or for mere language appreciation purposes of linguists (Krashen 1978: 89), it should be eliminated from language teaching methods.

The *Monitor* refers to the *third hypothesis*. It is a device used by learners occasionally to edit their language performance. The *learned knowledge is* activated then to modify utterances generated from the *acquired knowledge* "compartment" of the brain. Such a "correction phase" can be initiated before or after the utterance has been produced (see Table 4).

Table 4: Krashen's Monitor Model



(Krashen/Terrell 1983: 30)

However, certain conditions have to be fulfilled, if the *Monitor* is to work at all. First, there has to be enough time available, secondly the focus must be on form and not on meaning, and thirdly, the learner must know the rule explicitly. (Krashen 1978: 15 pp)37

Furthermore, Krashen states in his *natural order hypothesis* (his second) that, when students are engaged in natural communication tasks, they will all follow *the same progression* in the acquisition of formal grammar features. However, if they have to fulfill tasks that demand metalinguisic knowledge, e.g. expressing explicit grammar rules, this natural order will change (Krashen 1978: 12 pp.).

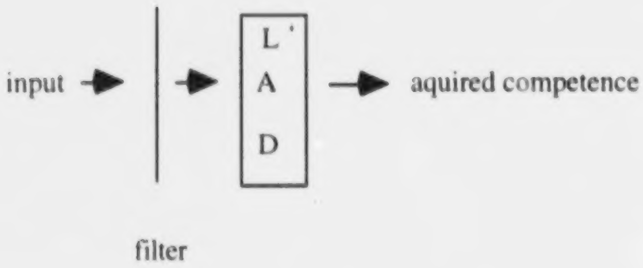
The *fourth hypothesis* concerns itself with the kind of *input* necessary to guarantee successful learning. Thus, it deals with the question of how a student moves from one stage of knowledge to the next. For that to happen, the *input* has to be *comprehensible* and just slightly beyond the student's present level of knowledge (the i + 1 level). Moreover, it applies only to *acquisition*, not to *learning processes*, because contrary to common belief, Krashen's motto is "we acquire meaning first and as a result we acquire structure" (Krashen 1978: 21 pp.)38.

Finally, the fifth hypothesis, the *affective filter hypothesis* covers what the *Acculturation Model* of second language learning proposes:

> ...the degree to which a learner accultures to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language. (Schumann 1987: 34)

Accordingly, Krashen claims that the more motivated, self-confident and less anxious students are, the lower the *affective filter* and the better the learning results. A problem such as *fossilization* (Selinker 1972:215) can be explained by a very high affective filter, for instance. What is interesting is also that Krashen's model contains a LAD, but, just as Chomsky, he cannot prove its existence with scientific precision (Krashen 1978: 30 pp.).

Table 5: *Operation of the affective filter*



(Krashen 1987: 32, adapted E.S.)

In addition to these five categories, another five causative variables are taken into account, those being

(1) age,
(2) individual learners differences,
(3) routines and patterns,
(4) the role of the first language, and
(5) the student's aptitude

Krashen differentiates between three general types of performers. The *Monitor over users* speak very hesitantly not being able to express themselves independently nor trusting their spontaneous correct use of structure. The *Monitor under-users,* of course, display the opposite behavior. They correct themselves, when the spoken or written word does not "feel right". The *optimal Monitor users* only avail themselves of its support, when it is appropriate so that a conversation does not slow down too much. (Krashen 1978: 18 pp.)

Krashen and his *Natural Approach Method* achieved a certain notoriety as his theory of language acquisition (non-interface position) set an enormous wave of **criticism** in motion. One of his most serious critics, besides **Gregg** (1984: 81 pp.), is Mc Laughlin 40. His claim is that if there is no way to disprove a theory, it is not conducive to research in any respect, thereby rendering itself fairly useless (1990: 630/621, also Ellis 1986: 264). He writes:

> The information-processing or cognitive account provides means of empirically testing its predictions. It is difficult to see how Krashen's claims about conscious learning and unconscious acquisition can be falsified. (Mc Laughlin 1990: 621)

Mc Laughlin also poses the question, how Krashen can explain conditions under which a person retrieves consciously a not consciously acquired piece of information, when there is no connection between *acquisition* and *learning* (Mc Laughlin 1990: 621). Among others, Sherwood-Smith (1991), Gregg (1984: 81) and Stevick (1980: 270 pp.) deal with the same issue.

Mc Laughlin, a trained linguist, would not be able to concur with certainty that he has produced a specific sentence in a foreign language on the of a monitor-guided rule or a "feel". How then can a student accomplish this and why does Krashen not elaborate on this issue of monitoring ? (Mc Laughlin 1978: 317f) In fact, he does not even clarify in what way the cognitive processes are responsible for each type of knowledge (learning/acquisition). Thus, Ellis (1986: 265) calls Krashen's theory a "black box theory". Ellis also comments on the critical fact that monitoring actually relates to performance but "learning", with which he links it directly, relates to rule internalization. Also, according to Krashen, *monitoring* only accounts for language production, but not for language reception and it is only restricted to syntax. Lexis, pronunciation and discourse are not considered. (Morrison/ Low, in, Ellis 1986: 265)41

In addition, **Schmidt** (1990: 149 p) points out that the role of unconscious foreign language learning has on the whole been overemphasized. In Krashen's dichotomy the issue of "consciousness" is particularly ambiguous due to the inconsistent use of the terms " unconscious". and "subconscious"(also Gregg 1984: 82, Mc Laughlin 1978: 321). Table 6 provides an overview of the different use of the terms conscious/unconscious in literature on language acquisition research.

Table 6: *Summary of Schmidt's collection of terminological variety concerning the terms "conscious"/"unconscious" language acquisition*

Conscious	***Unconscious***
Learning with awareness	Learning without awareness
Noticing	Not noticing
Understanding and insight	No understanding and insight
Intention to learn	Incidental learning
Intention to use metacognitive strategies	No such intention
Ability to report what is known	No such ability
Explicit knowledge	Implicit knowledge
Focal attention	Peripheral attention
Short-term memory	Long-term memory
Controlled processing	Automatic processing
Serial processing	Parallel processing

(summary of Schmidt, in: Mc Laughlin 1990: 628)

Consequently, without intending to deny the importance of subjective experience in the language learning process, Mc Laughlin (1990) and Schmidt (1990) agree with **Odlin**'s (Odlin 1986: 138) suggestion to avoid this "notoriously slippery notion of *consciousness* altogether[42].

Even if not all aspects of criticism can be presented within these restrictions of this paper[43], it should have become clear that apart from the problems specifically connected with the Krashen Model, this non-interface theory on foreign language learning processes is not very much favored by specialists in the field. It is the only approach which absolutely denies the transferability of explicit, *declarative* knowledge to implicit, *procedural knowledge* and thus to correct communicative performance. Some of the models illustrating the transferability of *competence* into correct and appropriate *performance* will be presented in the following two chapters.

2.2.2 The Interface Position

For the majority of theorists, learning represents an interplay of varying intensity between the theoretical knowledge of language features and their correct and appropriate use in performance (Glover 1990: 64). This position is referred to as the **interface position.** The criticism of Krashen's non-interface position, presented in the previous chapter, has lent itself to support and strengthen the interface position. Contrary to Krashen's Model, the best way to learn and speak a foreign language cannot solely be an "unconscious, automatic acquisition". The following comment illustrates the basis for the interface position:

> ... being exposed to a language is not like being exposed to a virus. One does not catch it automatically.
>
> (Seliger in: Digeser 1988: 236)

Seliger (1979) proposes a **weak interface position.** He admits that it will be easier for a learner to internalize a language feature, when he/she knows the "pedagogical rule", because it can serve as a mnemonic device to retrieve the piece of information needed to perform correctly in the foreign language. But this "pedagogical rule", e.g. a taught grammar rule, may function as nothing more than an "acquisition facilitator" (Seliger 1979: 368). It can initiate the application of language structures which are still not quite available as explicit knowledge. Nevertheless, he does not support the interface position to its full extent. For him "learned knowledge" contains the potential for, but not necessarily demands a complete convertibility into "acquired knowledge".

More closely related to Krashen' s non-interface position are some of **Bialystok's** works concerning the question of transferability of declarative to procedural knowledge (1979a: 79 pp./1987: 77). Even though her second language acquisition model is based on two types of interacting knowledge, it becomes clear from her description of the *implicit* and *explicit knowledge* type that she partially agrees with Krashen's non-interactive knowledge types "learned" and "acquired". For instance, they both speak of their two separate areas of knowledge with different functions as being dependent on the kind of input given. In claiming that explicit knowledge can store information which is not yet a part of the implicit knowledge, she disagrees with Krashen.

For her such knowledge can be acquired either implicitly by direct digestion of intuitively gained knowledge ("unconscious acquisition"), or explicitly by process of automatization. This statement implies that explicit, declarative knowledge can be transferred into implicit, procedural knowledge.

What he had so strongly criticized in Krashen's model, **Mc Laughlin** tried to avoid in his **interface model.** Krashen's monitor hypothesis had provided no explanation for consciously retrievable pieces of information which had not been learned consciously. For this very reason, Mc Laughlin adopted Shiffrin and Schneider's information-processing model (1977), because there is no differentiation between controlled and automatic processes on the basis of conscious awareness. According to this dual concept,

> in the initial stages of learning, controlled processes are adopted and used to perform accurately and are in effect the "stepping stones" for the development of subsequent automatic processes. (Mc Laughlin 1990: 62O)

Thus, learning the target language entails going from the controlled to the automatic mode of producing meaningful text which makes the distinction between two unconnected knowledge types, such as claimed by Krashen, unnecessary.

Sharwood-Smith (1981) develops a **strong interface model** on the basis of Bialystok and Mc Laughlin in which a direct flow from declarative to procedural knowledge is possible. He argues:

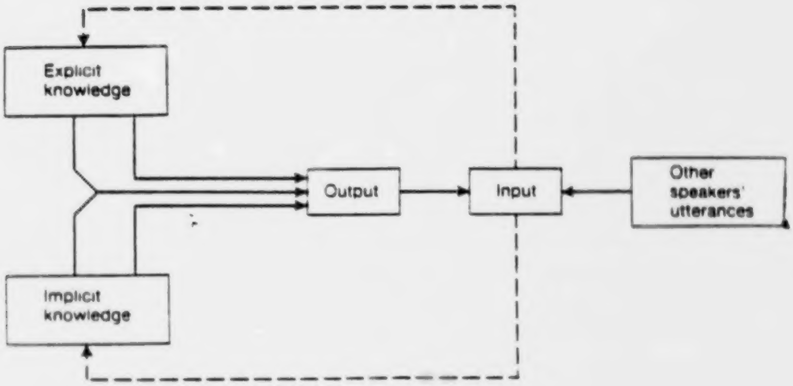
> Whatever the view of the underlying processes in second language learning ... It is quite clear and uncontroversial to say that most spontaneous performance is attained by dint of practice. In the course of actually performing in the target language, the learner gains the necessary control over its structures such that he or she can use them quickly without reflection.
>
> (Sharwood-Smith 1981:166)

For him formal instruction in the foreign language provides a stimulus for consciousness-raising. The resulting explicit knowledge has to be practiced until it is internalized. According to his concept, a learner can perform in the foreign language in three different ways:

1. implicit knowledge serves as a source
2. explicit knowledge serves as a source
3. implicit and explicit knowledge function as a source

The learner's input consists of his/her own utterances and the other communication partner's contribution as well. The combined input can function as corrective or affirmative feedback for either the implicit knowledge, the explicit, or a combination of both. This model implies that not yet automatic explicit knowledge can become, through practice of formal structures, a fully automated part of the implicit knowledge. A constant flow from one type of knowledge to the other is thereby maintained as guaranteed. Table 7 shows the graphic presentation of Sharwood-Smith's interface model.

Table 7: *Sharwood- Smith's interface model*



(Sharwood-Smith 1981: 166)

I decided to focus only on the achievements of Bialystok, Mc Laughlin and Sharwood-Smith, since their collective concepts of language learning clearly support the theory of transferability of declarative to procedural knowledge, thus arguing for the affirmative effect of declarative knowledge on correct performance. To take a more detailed look at other advocates of the interface position such as Taylor (1984), Gregg (1984), Krahnke (1985), Sorace (1985), Dunlop (1985/86), Sorace (1985), Freudenstein (1986), Faerch/ Kaspar (1986) or Digeser (1987), would lead to us beyond the restrictions of this paper.

2.2.3 The Variability Position

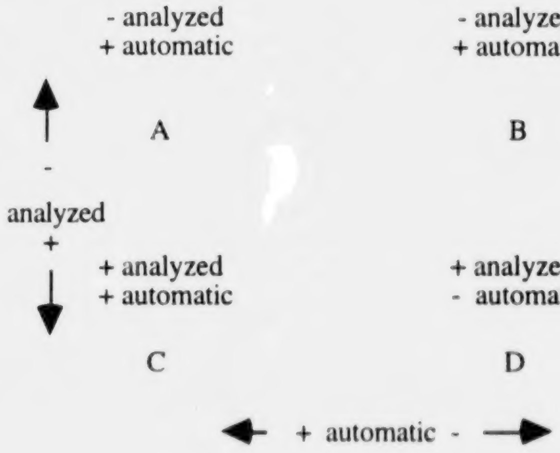
The more recent works of **Bialystok** (1982/84), as well as her projects carried out together with **Sharwood-Smith** (1985) and **Ryan** (1985) and the works of **Ellis** (1986) call for yet another approach to the problem of knowledge transfer from the level of explicit, *declarative* via implicit, *procedural knowledge* to correct performance. They represent the **variability position.** Even though these studies focus do not exclusively on foreign language learning in particular, but on natural L 1 and L2 acquisition, they are interesting in the context of this paper. The researchers claim that despite some occasional affinity between certain forms of knowledge and the learning situation, there is no

> straightforward or simple mapping between formal learning and the development of analyzed knowledge, nor between informal exposure and the development of unanalysed knowledge.
>
> (Bialystok 1982: 199)

Thus, the dichotomy of implicit, "unanalysed" and explicit, "analysed" knowledge has to give way to a more flexible system. What is demanded here is a variable competence model "in which the learner' s variable performance is seen as a reflection of a stylistic continuum" (Ellis 1986:265). Depending on the situational context, defined for instance by learner specific factors, material, type of task and learning conditions (East 1990: 52 pp.; Ellis 1986:99 pp.), different types of knowledge are activated. As a result, the practice of one particular linguistic item, i.e. the "will future" in "Conditional "- sentences, does not guarantee the student's ability to perform correctly in a different kind of activity, since the situational context is different from the one which he/she was trained in. Consequently, the dichotomy is replaced by a **continuum** along which the declarative knowledge develops **from analyzed to unanalyzed knowledge**, and allows a "variety" of types of knowledge on the spectrum. This way, the focus is directed towards the "interrelationship between use and acquisition", as Ellis (1986: 237) puts it. Bialystok (1978), contrary to her previous works, does not take the criterion "consciousness" into account anymore. Instead, she refers to the inequivalent term "awareness" which stands for "depth of understanding" (Bialystok 1982:205).

"Cognitive control" is the second dimension along which the learner's procedural knowledge develops. It varies according to the demand put on the procedural components of knowledge for the retrieval of stored information. The more cognitive effort (thinking) it takes, the more cognitive control is necessary for the utterance (see Table 8, type C). So, the more automatic this thinking process is the more fluently the utterance can be produced (see Table 8, type D). Table 8 shows a graphic representation of Bialystok's variability model.

Table 8: *Bialystok's variability model: types of knowledge and learner types in a variable L 2 system41*



(Ellis 1986: 238, based on Bialystok 1982)

For Bialystok a certain type of knowledge is represented in a certain type of learner. Thus, the **learner type B** with the type B knowledge, is mostly represented by beginners, **learner type A** with type A knowledge, by students at a more advanced stage. Formal learners who are at beginners level can be classified as **learner type D. Learner type** C is the formal learner at a later stage (Ellis 1986: 238p) 45

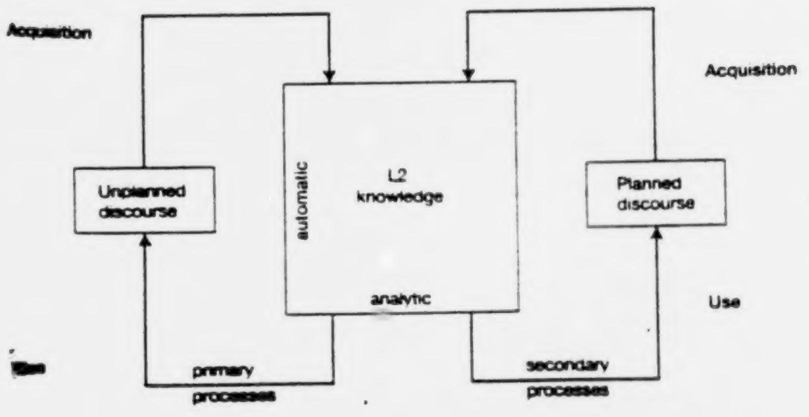
In addition to Bialystok and her research partners, **Elaine Tarone** (1983) offers a continuum concept for language learning. Instead of *analysis of knowledge*, it moves along the dimension of *capability*. For her

> *capability* consists of that knowledge which underlies regularities in learner production and perception, writing and reading as well as in making judgments on grammaticality.
>
> (Tarone 1983: 151)

The learner has a spectrum available reaching from ***vernacular style*** to ***careful style*** (Tarone 1983:152). Styles will be selected and varied according to the appropriacy in the situational context.

Rod Ellis has extended Bialystok's et.al. and Tarone's variabilty position as can be seen in Table 9 (Ellis 1986: 269). His *Variable Competence Model* is not only a language acquisition model but it also considers language use. He proposes that, depending on how automatic and analyzed the language rules are (Bialystok's part), certain interlanguage rules are activated. These variable rules are stored in a single 'knowledge compartment'. Should the learner wish to speak or write, he can choose from a range of two sources of discourse and processes on a continuum scale: from the unplanned, spontaneous to the planned discourse (the product/"what to say"), and from the primary to secondary processes of language use ("how to say it"). The quality of performance in the foreign language again depends on which kind of "process" is activated (analyzed or unanalyzed), which language rules apply, and whether these rules were utilized in planned or unplanned discourse. According to Ellis, new language features and rules can be acquired by means of active participation in various types of discourse, or by activating rules which initially had been stored as type B knowledge (according to Bialystok' s model), or in an analyzed form so that they can be applied in spontaneous discourse (for further details Ellis 1986: 266 pp.).

Table 9: *Ellis' variable competence model*



(Ellis 1986: 269)

Consequently, this approach, just as the previous interface position, supports the theory of the transferability of declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge, suggesting the positive effect of competence on correct performance. This time, however, it is not on the basis of a dichotomical system as for instance in the *interface position.* Even though, initially only pieces of knowledge move along the horizontal line of a continuum, they merge to form a conclusive, illuminating understanding of the very complex structure of language.

In conclusion, with the exception of the non-interface position, the overall research results suggest that grammatical competence reflects positively in grammatically correct performance by means of cognitive learning processes. In our case, working with grammar rules for" future tense" provides useful cognitive tools to initiate movement towards acceptable and grammatically correct language performance even in a "communicative language classroom" where most natural language acquisition is a premise[46].

3. The Empirical Research Project

This part will be dedicated to the analysis of empirical research material collected at the Department of English Didactics at the University of Munich under supervision of Professor Dr. Karl-Heinz Hecht as part of Project VI of the research survey "Learner Language." The battery of tests was started in October 1991 and concluded in March 1992. Among other tests such as a vocabulary or style test and a picture story written exam, it included the two grammar tests considered in this analysis, the **implicit/explicit test** (IET) and the **passive grammar test** (PGT), and **letter writing** test (LWT)[47]. As these tests were to elicit if, and to what degree, grammatical competence is transferable to correct performance, the analysis results are expected to provide evidence for an acceptable degree of transfer in regard to the grammatical item "future tense"; thus, the results might deliver empirical material to disprove Krashen's non-interface hypothesis.

3. 1 Test Population

The test population of part VI of the "Lernersprachen Projekt" consisted of 74 students from three "Gymnasien" located in different parts of Bavaria. The schools will be referred to as A, B and C[48]. At the time of the testing, all participants were attending the tenth grade. Since English was their first foreign language, introduced to them in fifth grade, they were in their sixth year of English. According to the State Curriculum, at this level all important aspects of English grammar have been covered, so that the tests could serve as revision of familiar, not necessarily newly learned material.

15 student productions were considered a big enough corpus for the purpose of the following analysis. To assure an empirically acceptable, representative basis for the analysis, I was to choose five productions from each school at random. Since they had been collected in an entirely random order - no alphabetical order, no division according to sex, previous grades or age et.c., and had been numbered, providing no personal information about the student, a selection based entirely on chance was guaranteed by picking the first five tests from each school[49].

3. 2 Test Types, Test And Correction Procedures

Before the three relevant test types, the **Passive Grammar Test** (PGT), the **Implicit/Explicit Test** (IET) and the **Letter Writing Test** (LWT) can be examined, test and correction procedures will be described in detail.50

3. 2. 1 Test And Correction Procedures

All participating students were informed about the fact that this battery of tests was conducted for research purposes at the University of Munich only, and that the results had no influence on their grades. The testees were offered as much time as they considered necessary to fulfill their tasks. Both of these factors meant that less stress was involved than in a normal testing situation, when time pressure and the fear of low performance resulting in bad grades often function as psychological barriers. Consequently, the results could be expected to turn out better than under normal test conditions. On the other hand, some students might have concentrated less, because they did not feel the need to " fight for a good grade." Such considerations should be kept in mind, when reading the test results. Statistically, however, they are irrelevant. Concerning the test results, it should also be remembered that there was about two to three weeks between the competence tests and the performance test, a time interval considered long enough for the students to be unable to recall what kind of answers they had given in the previous test(s). They had to prove their knowledge anew every time. Additionally, since not all testees followed the request to write down their last year's English grade, no conclusions can be drawn in regard to improvement or change concerning their performance in class otherwise.

Where a model correction sheet was available, one marker sufficed for reliable, objective marking results. However, in the case of the letter productions three native speakers were consulted to avoid subjective marking. The letter marking team consisted of two British university lectors and one American instructor. Only in case two of them identified an answer, word or structure as incorrect or inappropriate, the foreign language production was considered an **error.**

In the context of this study an **error** is defined as a falsity conflicting with competence (Corder 1979: 259), in our case the correct or incorrect use of the future tense 51. In the case of the letter productions, each student's errors were collected on an "Error Survey Chart". (see appendix C) Those identified by two markers were referred to as "majority errors"52. They were also categorized according to grammar (syntax, morphology, tense, preposition), vocabulary (concept, collocation, non-existent word), style (inappropriate language item, discourse organization) and spelling (see "Error Category Chart appendix D). Those errors considered a "majority error" provide the basis for the error analysis of the letters in this paper. The original idea to label the errors also according to their degree of severity was dropped 53.

Already in 1967, Pit Corder (1967: 167) pointed out that errors are evidence for language learning researchers of a learner's strategy to retrieve stored information and of the route he/she follows when building up their competence in the FL. Moreover, the teachers can find out how much their students have progressed, and how much has to be taught again. Most importantly, the errors provide the student with the feedback necessary to study more efficiently in future. Consequently, also in this study errors appear to be an efficient measure for the purpose of my analysis. As I intend to produce evidence for the transferability of competence to performance, the competence tests and the performance tests seem appropriate to supply relevant/desired data 54.

3. 2. 2 The Passive Grammar Test

The **passive grammar test** (PGT) is conducted to deliver information about the learners' state of mental grammar *(grammatical competence)55* . In this kind of ***competence test*** (CT), the student is asked to recognize "passively" which of the choices given is the correct one (test see appendix E). The items of this "multiple choice test" are embedded in mini-situations, so that the testees are provided with the necessary input to activate the appropriate knowledge stored in the long term memory. Since no writing or correcting is required, no productive application of grammatical competence is demanded. Only "receptive monitoring" is involved in this task of eliminating the "recognition knowledge"56.

Moreover, this test cannot provide information about what kind of knowledge-explicit, declarative or implicit, procedural knowledge - caused a student to choose the correct answer. For this reason, the comparison of the results of this CT with the second, the IET, is of importance. It can reveal insight into which type of knowledge has initiated the correct choice in the PGT and possibly later on also in the LWT as well.

The **passive grammar test** focuses on the elicitation of grammatical knowledge in regard to tense and aspect, prepositions, syntax and morphology. Out of 20 test items, eleven were concerned with tense, that is 55% of all questions (item 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 20). Of those, five items (item 6, 9, 13, 14, and 20) deal with the issue "future tense". The fact that almost half of the tense items (45.5 %) thematize " future tense" and that the "future tense "-questions constitute 25% of all grammar issues raised in the PGT, supports the assumptions that first of all the "future tenses" are a very important part of English tense grammar and that secondly they obviously cause German students enough problems to have been paid attention to so much. Table 10 supplies an outline of the grammatical topics tested in this CT. The bold letters indicate the items relevant for our study.

As to the correction procedure of this test type, there was no room for subjective marking, because the sentences provided the context necessary for the respective marker to judge the correctness of choice without having second thoughts about it.

Table 10 *List of items tested in the PGT*

item	1	**tense:** present perfect (progressive)
item	2	**tense:** present perfect
item	3	preposition (by train)
item	4	**tense:** past progressive
item	5	syntax: "place" before "time"
item	6	**tense: ' ll future**
item	7	**tense:** if- pattern II
item	8	**tense:** if- pattern **III**
item	9	**tense: if- pattern I**
item	10	syntax: question formation
item	11	syntax: change of word order
item	12	**tense: present progressive**
item	13	**tense: simple present with future meaning**
item	14	**tense: "will future" following "I think"**
item	15	morphology: comparison of adjective
item	16	syntax: position of "also", additive adjunct
item	17	morphology: use of definite/indefinite article
item	18	morphology: regular/irregular verb
item	19	morphology: regular/irregular verb
item	20	**tense: no future in subordinate clause**

(emphasis E. Schneider)

3. 2. 3 *The Implicit-Explicit Test*

In contrast to the previous CT, the second one testing *grammatical competence* required active application of theoretical grammatical knowledge. In the **implicit-explicit test (IET)** (test: see appendix F), the testees were confronted with a series of twelve sentences, each one containing a frequent grammatical error, many of which having been made in earlier tests. The false element was underlined to avoid students focusing on an irrelevant part.

The participants were asked to fulfill two different tasks: first, explanations or rules for each underlined error had to be given so that the person who had made the error would be able to understand what he/she had done wrong, and would be able to correct it. This was to show whether the students were able to recall grammatical knowledge explicitly by naming the rule. Often *metalinguistic language* was used to meet the requirement. Secondly, the testees were to write down the correct version in the column next to the rule. Applying their explicit knowledge actively, the testees could give an example of their implicit, procedural knowledge regarding the item (thus the name implicit/explicit test). Those testees who were only able to show either explicit or implicit knowledge, provided insight into what type of knowledge they referred to regarding the respective grammatical issue tested. This kind of information was not accessable in the PGT. Table 11 gives an outline of the content of this test and shows that only item 3, dealing with the "will future" in a "Conditional I-sentence", is of concern for the following Future Tense analysis.

Table 11: *Grammatical Issues raised in the Implicit-Explicit Test*

ITEM	INCORRECT TEXT	CORRECTION	GENERALIZATION
1	lives my aunt	my aunt lives	S-P in declarative sentences
2	I've played	I played	preterite for focus on time of action in past
3	I show	It will show	verb marked to show futurity
4	takes not	doesn't take	*do*-periphrasis with *not*
5	like to ride	like riding	gerund for general liking
6	I know	I(ha)ve known	perfect to link past with present
7	something	anything	*any* with negation
8	careful	carefully	adverb form usually marked
9	was coming	came	progressive form to mark aspect
10	smoked	was smoking	progressive form to mark aspect
11	man which	man who	relative *who* for person
12	an policeman	a policeman	a-form of indefinite article before consonant

(Green/Hecht 1992: 171 p.)

The sentences offered enough contextual background information for native speakers to be certain about the expected, correct answers. But, whereas the corrections could be marked objectively, deciding whether a formulated rule could be accepted as correct, unavoidably involved a certain amount of subjectivity (see also Hecht/Green 1992: 154). The following four types of rule explanations were considered correct:

1. rule expressed in technical language
2. metalanguage used, but slightly inaccurate
3. rule is more or less generally expressed
4. rule of thumb, well known to German students and teachers though not necessarily to native speakers of English 57.

(Green/Hecht 1992: 171 p.)

3. 2. 4 The Letter Writing 'Test

Since professor Hecht and Green believe letter writing assignments to reveal students' "communicative effectiveness" (Hecht/Green 1988:1), in other words their *communicative performability* of previously acquired /learned knowledge, the third type of test handed out to the tenth graders consisted of a letter writing assignment in response to a fictitious letter from Linda, a British pen-pal. As it is characteristic for a **performance test** (PT), the testees' primary focus was directed towards content rather than grammatically correct forms by instructing them to comment on all the issues raised by Linda (for original letter see appendix G). Responding to all of them, required the applicability of many grammatical features thematized before in the two CTs. As opposed to the first two tests, this time the participants were not aware that grammatical correctness was going to be looked for afterwards, because they mainly concentrated on what they wanted to say 55.

Cultural knowledge about letter writing procedures in English, e.g. introduction and conclusion formulas, punctuation or date, were expected to be applied as well. This required a component totally irrelevant for the CTs. The testees had to develop their own thoughts and put them into words, without any limit to personal freedom of expression and creativity. All that had to be accomplished was to produce a meaningful message which could be understood by a native speaker.

Even though the task to comment on all the points raised, guaranteed a very basic structure of content, the marking team faced the problem of subjectivity again. Appendix D shows a correction sheet which one marker used to categorize the errors detected. All participants' errors were categorized according to the *Error Category Chart* criteria and listed on the *Error Survey Chart* (see appendix C). As mentioned before, only those errors will count for the following analysis which have been identified as such by at least two of the markers. Nevertheless, the problem of whether an expression or structure was to be considered an error or not remained.

As to how many future tense constructions can be expected in the LWT, the following pieces of information given in Linda's letter were to serve as implicit facilitators for the use of a future tense structure. They outnumber any other tense indicators.

Table 12:*Future Tense initiators for the LWT*

- Linda wants to know where the student will go to in Italy with his/her parents in summer,
- whether the trip to Italy meant she/he would not be able to come to England for a visit,
- and if he/she wants to go to school with Linda for the first week.
- Finally Linda wants to hear from her German pen- pal whether she will come for certain.

4. The Test Item "Future Tense" and Expected Test Results

The kind of grammatical knowledge the German learner has to contrastively differentiate between with regard to the English Future Tense system, when trying to make the right choice in a CT or PT, will be briefly considered. Thus, a contrastive look at the English and German future tense system will precede the hypotheses concerning the comparison of the CTs and the PT with each other (results chapter 5.2). Expectations concerning the comparison of the school groups' overall performance of transfer of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance will follow (results Chapter 5.3).

4. 1 A Brief Contrastive Look at the Future Tense Systems of German and English

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As this quick contrastive look at the German and English "future tense" system is to provide information about possible error sources, only those tense features are considered which were relevant for the testees to recall in the CTs and to apply in their letters. Since none of the students used the Future 11, that is Future Perfect forms (will + HAVE 59 + past participle / will + BE + having + past participle), either incorrectly nor correctly, they will not be referred to. For the same reason, the following Future I forms will not be considered either:

- to be about to + infinitive / to be on the point of + gerund / to be bound to + infinitive/to be sure/certain to + infinitive
- modal auxiliary verbs such as should, must, has to
- the future progressive (will + be + Verb-ing)60

Originally, neither the German nor the English language possessed a specific form to express future events. The present tense was used and its future-meaning was clear from the context. Since actions to be carried out in the future were either due to an order given by someone or a wish expressed, the modal auxiliaries "shall" and "will" were taken to emphasize actions in the future. To the present day, "will", "shall" and their German equivalent "werden" are used to express future events. In both languages, the future of the present tense has survived as well. In German, however, it is applied to a wider range than in English, so that few analytical forms are available for the indication of different future aspects (Lamprecht 1980: 225). As can be seen in table 13, the English language has developed a greater variety of explicit forms to express planned, unplanned, immediate future events than the German has. Whereas the German future tense system generally operates on three different structures (a. b., c.), the English has five major (A.-E.) and two minor means of expressing future events (F., G.)61.

Table 13: *Summary of English Future I tense forms in comparison to the German Future I system*

ENGLISH FUTURE TENSE	GERMAN FUTURE TENSES
A. **"will future"** (not in dependent clauses)	a. "werden future" + (modal, temporal adverbial)
B. **"going to future**	
C. **present tense** + temporal adverbial	b. present tense + temporal adverbial
D. **present progressive**	
E. **future progressive**	
F. **"to be about to"** and other alternative forms	
G. **auxiliaries:** should, must, have to et.c.	c. **auxiliaries:** müssen, sollen, et.c.

(E. Schneider)

In the English language, the kind of semantic meaning conveyed to the recipient by the future tense is basically indicated by five different structures 62. The German language handles this issue differently. It points to these semantic differences by using a great variety of modal or/and temporal adverbials like for instance those underlined in the following German sentences:

Er wird sicher/sicherlich /bestimmt *bald kommen* .
Sie *werden wohl unterwegs sein* .
Ich komme sofort.

Table 14 below provides a graphic representation of the four English Future I tense forms actually used by the testees in comparison to their German equivalent, composed with the "werden future" or the Present Tense combined with certain modal or temporal adverbials. It also lists the differences in expression of two specific sentence structures requiring the "will future" the testees were expected to differentiate in the tests. The first of them is of major importance for the analysis of the transferability of competence to performance, because it is the only structure appearing in every test

- the Conditional I clause: "if + present tense" in the dependent clause and "will + Verb" only in the main clause
- "I think" + "will + Verb"

Table 14: *Contrastive look at English future tense structures and its equivalent forms of expression in German*

ENGLISH	GERMAN
1. "WILL FUTURE": will/shall + verb most common traditionally: 1./2. person. singular./plural. takes: shall + verb	**"WERDEN FUTURE": werden + verb** no differentiation: werden applies to all persons
A. neutral prediction without attitudinal implications	**A.** werden carries a modal component: *er wird dir morgen helfen*
B. decision about **immediate future**	
C. order in 2. person: *you will do your homework !*	**C. order** in 2. person: *du wirst jetzt die Hausaufgaben machen!*
D. assumption concerning the **present** (due to experience, other signals) *that will be the postman*	**D.** assumption about the **present tense** based on signals or experience *das wird wohl der Postbote sein* here the modal component of "werden" is emphasized
2. "GOING TO" FUTURE: be + going to verb plans, intentions, future actions for which there is present evidence *it's going to rain (this afternoon). See the clouds!*	**"PRESENT TENSE" FUTURE: present tense+ modal adverbial:** *bestimmt, sicher* *Es regnet heute (bestimmt) noch. Sieh dir die Wolken an !*

3. "PRESENT TENSE" FUTURE: **verb in simple present form + temporal adverbial** future plan which will **certainly come true** *the train leaves at 5:30 p.m.*	**"PRESENT TENSE" FUTURE:** **verb in present form +temporal adverbial:** *wie immer, planmäßig* • most commonly used form in German, • more frequently used than in English • future event will **certainly come true** *der Zug fährt abends um 5: 30 ab.*
4. PRESENT PROGRESSIVE: **be + verb-ing + temporal adverbial** • future plans and arrangements, • involvement has started already, but has not ended yet • will end soon *That's it. I'm leaving.*	**"WERDEN FUTURE" + temporal adverbial:** *bald, dann sofort, sofort* • future plans and arrangements, • involvement has started already, but has not ended yet • will end soon *Morgen wird er es dann besprechen* (modal component: for sure) *Jetzt reicht's. Ich gehe (sofort).*
5. No "WILL FUTURE" in dependent clauses when it is a temporal or conditional clause **but in main clause** *If it rains, I'll take the bus.*	**No "WERDEN FUTURE" in dependent clauses** when it is a temporal or conditional clause **also not in main clause** *Wenn es regnet, nehme ich den Bus.*
6. "WILL FUTURE" AFTER "I THINK"/ I'm sure/I suppose/ I'm afraid *I think I'll have to vomit.* *I'm sure she'll call.*	**PRESENT TENSE AFTER "I THINK"/I'm sure/I suppose/ I'm afraid** *Ich glaube, ich muß mich übergeben.* **"WERDEN FUTURE when the modal aspect is stressed** *Ich bin sicher, daß sie anruft/ anrufen wird.*

In conclusion, the only real identical use of the German and the English future structure lies in the "order form" (1 C.) and the "assumption about a present event" which can be taken as real, because it is based on experience or other indications (1 D.). All the other "future tenses" either do not exist in this form in German, or, if they do, they only overlap partly with the English semantic field.

Even though the questions of error types cannot be discussed in detail in this paper, the two major types will be commented on occasionally, when further investigation might be of value in future. One of them is the so-called *Ranschburg phenomenon.* It occurs, when due to similarity of structures in the mother tongue and the target language, the learner instinctively avoids the positive transfer and produces an error by choosing a different structure (Hecht/Green 1983: 44). The other major error type is called *overgeneralization* and is caused by an erroneous overuse of an internalized rule 63.

4. 2 Hypotheses Concerning the Test Results

The hypotheses presented in this chapter are based on the following presuppositions:

- All testees have been confronted with English as a Foreign Language in a learning environment unsimilar to that of a second language or first language learning situation. Thus, acquisition in Krashen's terms cannot really occur, because there is always some focus on content.
- Students' books and teachers really provide the learner with explicit/ declarative knowledge about the grammatical structure of the English language (see results of Zimmermann' s study, quoted in the introduction). Thus, grammatical knowledge, explicit or already processed into implicit knowledge, is the basis for correct performance.
- Grammatical exercises, taking place in a communicatively oriented setting, will lead to a transfer of what Hecht calls " code competence " (competence) to "communicative competence" (performance) Consequently, competence will reflect in performance.
- At least 50% of the knowledge indicated in the CTs will have to reflect in the communicative performance task results to be considered a successful transfer64.
- If a student knows the rules, s/he will profit from it in as much as this knowledge can function as a self correction "monitor".

The assumptions in regard to the transferability of knowledge about the English future tense from the level of competence to correct communicative performance (Chapter 4.2.1 - 4.2.3) will be followed by hypotheses in relation to the results of each school (Chapter 4.2.4). It is also essential to point out again that the use of "will future" in the Conditional I if-pattern is the only grammatical item tested in all three exam types. Therefore, this structure will serve as a main source for the analysis of the transferability of competence to performance (see Chapter 4.2.3 in particular).

4.2.1 The Passive Grammar Test and the Letter Writing Test

The following three hypotheses will provide information about the transferability of grammatical competence to correct performance in general:

I. Those future items, which have been identified correctly in the PGT have also been used correctly in the LWT by the majority of testees. (50% +)
If the grammatical competence is there, it will reflect positively in the performance test.

II. Conversely, those future test items which have not been identified correctly in the PGT, are not used correctly by most students (50% +). or are not used at all in the LWT.

III. If competence transfers directly to performance, the sequence of the frequency of errors discovered in the PGT of regard to each item should repeat itself in the LWT as well.

4.2.2 The Implicit-Explicit Test and the Letter Writing Test

These next hypotheses are intended to offer insight into the different influence of explicit and implicit grammatical knowledge on correct performance. The set of hypotheses IV, IVa, IV b and IVc will first of al l be concerned with the overall application of competence indicated in the IET without differentiation according to correct or incorrect use, because so few productions showed the "will future" structure in the Conditional I pattern applied in the letters. The following four thematize the correct and incorrect use (hypotheses V, VI, VII, VIII).

IV. The if- pattern is only used in the performance test (letter) by those students who have produced at least one correct answer in the IET, thus indicating some grammatical knowledge about the use of "will" in the Conditional I structure. (see also IET-LWT)
Depending on the type of learner, the testee will have the courage to use the " if pattern" in the letter either due to implicit knowledge of the structure (correction task) or due to explicit knowledge (rule)

IVa. The majority of those students who offer a proper solution to the correction task (R+C+, R-C+) 65, thus indicating that they have implicit knowledge about the use of "will" in the "if pattern", will use the structure in the letter.

IVb. Those who can only provide an example for their explicit knowledge about the structure (R+C-), will hardly use it in the letter, because their minds will focus too much on content to have time to use the "monitor", recall the rule and then try to apply it correctly. This is not considered entirely impossible though, because learner types are different. A very rule oriented learner, a "monitor over-user" in Krashen's terminology, would probably be able to use the structure in the letter correctly without ever having proven implicit grammatical know1edge about the issue.

IVc. Considering learning conditions in school, more of those testees who performed 100% correctly in the IET (R+C+) are expected to use the future tense in the Conditional I pattern properly than those who only indicated implicit knowledge (R-C+).

V. The majority of those testees able to provide the correct rule and correct correction are expected to use the "will future" in the "if-pattern" in the letter correctly as well. The student has indicated in the IET that he/she has implicit and explicit knowledge concerning this grammatical feature. Therefore, no problems are expected in the free application task.

VI. Most of those students (50%+) who cannot supply the correct rule but complete the correction task properly (R-C+), are also believed to use the "if-pattern" correctly in the communicative performance task. In regard to correct performability of a grammatical feature, the explicit, metalinguistic knowledge is not considered as important as the ability to produce the correct version in the CT. The proper correction indicates the student's ability to apply the theoretical knowledge in a CT (implicit knowledge). Thus he/she is expected to be able to transfer this implicit knowledge successfully into the communicative performance of letter writing.

VII. Conversely, if a student is only able to provide the rule, but cannot correct the theoretically identified error, he/she is not expected to perform the "if-pattern" correctly in the free letter production (if at all). This performance is expected from the majority of testees (50%+). If the correct use of the Conditional I if pattern is only available as explicit knowledge and cannot be recalled implicitly in the CT where the focus is on form, it will be even less likely that the student can activate implicit knowledge for a creative free production in which grammar is of no primary concern.

VIII. Is a testee unable to provide either the correct rule or the proper correction in the IET, s/he is suspected of being unable to apply the "will future" in the "if- pattern" correctly, when writing the letter. Without any notion of implicit or explicit grammatical knowledge, successful communicative performance will hardly be possible.

In the following chart (table 15), the last four hypotheses (V, VI, VII, VIII) concerning the transfer of competence to performance with regard to the IET and the LWT are collected again for the reader. The (+) sign symbolizes correct performance, the (-) sign illustrates that the task has not been properly completed. In the LWT section the majority of testees are expected to either perform correctly (+) or incorrectly (-).

Table 15: *Illustration of hypotheses*

IET			LWT
	RULE	***CORRECTION***	
V.	+	+	+
VI.	-	+	+
VII.	+	-	-
VIII.	-	-	-

4.2.3 Overall Comparison of all Three Tests Based on the Performance of the "Will Future" in the Conditional I "If Pattern"

The following hypothesis is concerned with the overall comparison of the two CTs together with the PT. Since *hypothesis VIV* is so complex, it is subdivided into eight aspects to guarantee scientific precision. Prior to reading these subcategories, the reader is advised to take look at table 16, where the expected results in the LWT are collected. The (+) and (-) signs in the competence test section indicate whether the task has been completed correctly (+) or incorrectly (-). In the performance test section the (+) sign points out that "will" is expected to be applied correctly by the majority of the testees, whereas the (-) sign signals that it is expected to be mostly applied incorrectly.

VII. Regardless of the results in the PGT, the key issue for correct performance in the LWT is expected to be the proper correctability of the error in the IET. A positive result leads to correct performance in the LWT and vice versa. The correct answer in the PGT could be pure chance, which is not so likely to have taken place in the more complex, second CT. Knowing the rule, thus delivering evidence for declarative knowledge, is secondary concerning positive results in the creative communicative performance test. It is confirmed, when the majority of results support the sub-hypotheses.

Table 16: *All three tests compared with each other: the expected results in the LWT*
"WILL " IN CONDITIONAL I "IF PATTERN"

PTG		IET		LWT
		RULE	CORRECTION	
VIVa	+	+	+	+
VIVb	+	+	-	-
VIVc	+	-	+	+
VIVd	+	-	-	-
VIVe	-	+	+	+
VIVf	-	+	-	-
VIVg	-	-	+	+
VIVh	-	-	-	-

VIVa. When the correct "if pattern" has been recognized, backed up with a rule (explicit knowledge and has been properly corrected (implicit knowledge). the testee has given strong enough indications to expect correct application in the LWT in the majority of cases (50%+).

VIVb. In case the participant has recognized the correct "if pattern"structure and has provided the correct rule, but not the correction, he/she will most likely not apply this knowledge correctly in the LWT. (50%+)

The fact that only explicit knowledge could be retrieved in the IET allows for the conclusion that the correct solution in the PGT is most probably also based on explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge alone, however, is not believed to be sufficient for correct performance in the LWT. The mind has to focus primarily on content and not on form in the LWT. Thus, implicit, automatically available knowledge is expected to be mostly applied in the letter.

VIVc. Correct use of "will" in the "if pattern" is expected in most letter productions, when every task has been completed properly except naming the rule underlying this grammatical pattern.

It can be concluded from the performance in the IET that the reason son for making the correct choice in the PGT is most likely implicit, procedural knowledge, since the testee indicated in the IET only implicit knowledge of the future tense use, otherwise the explicit rule would have to be present. Thus, the student is considered to possess enough implicit knowledge to perform correctly in the LWT.

VIVd. When only the PGT has been completed properly but none of the tasks in the IET, it is assumed that the will" in the "if- pattern" will not be used correctly by the majority of students - most likely not at all.
No procedural, implicit knowledge has been indicated which would increase the chances for correct performance in the LWT.

VIVe. Correct use of the "will" future in the "if pattern" is expected in the LWT, even if the participant has not been able to find the correct solution in the PGT. Important is that the IET has been answered 100% correctly. The testee indicates with the results in the IET that he/she possesses explicit and implicit knowledge. Therefore, the majority of testees will perform the structure correctly in the letter.

VIVf. Providing the correct rule of the use of "will" in the "if pattern" is not considered sufficient to guarantee successful communicative performance, since the testee has not been able to demonstrate that his/her knowledge has moved from the analyzed, conscious level towards the automatized, implicit level (Bialystok's terminology). To be able to ensure a higher degree of correct performability in the LWT, implicit knowledge would have to show in the IET.

VIVg. Correct performance is also expected in the majority of cases (50%+) to appear in the LWT, when no other task but the correction task in the IET has been answered correctly. This is based on the understanding that the more automatized and implicit the knowledge is, the easier it is to retrieve and apply it in a performance task where the focus is content and not form.

VIVh. If none of the tasks providing information about a student's implicit or explicit competence, neither in the PGT nor in the IET, has been fulfilled properly, it is concluded that the person will not be able to apply the "will" future in the "if pattern" correctly, if at all. Without grammatical knowledge, implicit and/or explicit, there will be no proper performance.

4.2.4 The Three Schools and Their Overall Indication of Transferability of Competence to Performance

The following presuppositions have led to the last two hypotheses stated in this paper:

1. The best performer in the LWT is the school with most examples of future tenses in the letters and with the lowest error rate compared to the number of future tenses used.
2. The best performing school in the IET is the school with the highest degree of answering pattern (R+C+).
   The answer pattern (R-C+) is expected to serve as a more promising basis for correct performance in the LWT than the (R+C+)- results, because Bavarian high school students are more used to producing answers on the (R+C+) knowledge base than on the other. Realistically speaking, they are not only much more exposed to cognitive grammar teaching than L1 and possibly L2 learners, but are also more regularly tested on their level of explicit knowledge in exams.
3. The best performing school in regard to the PGT is the school with the least amount of incorrect answers. The fewer the errors, the more collective recognition knowledge is present within the group, which will have a positive effect on correct free language production.

Against the background of these restrictions, the following hypotheses developed:

X. On the premise that competence transfers directly to performance, the school having performed best in LWT has also performed best in both competence tests, just as the school performing second best in the LWT will also have delivered second best results in both competence tests.

XI. Conversely, the school with the worst results in the LWT, will also have performed worst of all three schools in both competence tests.

5. Results of the Analysis And Discussion

In the analysis and discussion section, first each test type will be analyzed individually to provide an impression of the students' actual performance. Afterwards, relevant data of each CT will be compared with those of the PT to gain information about the transferability of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance. Additionally, the results of both CTs together will be related to those of the PT to elicit information about the degree of transferability of competence to performance of each school. The verifiable hypotheses will provide support for the successful transfer of competence to performance. Those which cannot be confirmed do not disprove the interface or variability position. They indicate an insufficient degree of transfer, which is defined in this analysis as less than 50 percent of the knowledge demonstrated in the CTs.

5.1 The Results of Each Test Type

As stated in the introduction, language learners often fail to apply rules of grammar which they have been taught, when confronted with a communicative performance task. Thus, before the competence and performance test results can be compared and evaluated, it is necessary to find out how thoroughly the testees have learned the rules about the Future I tense by looking at each CT. Then their general tense performance in the PT will be scrutinized.

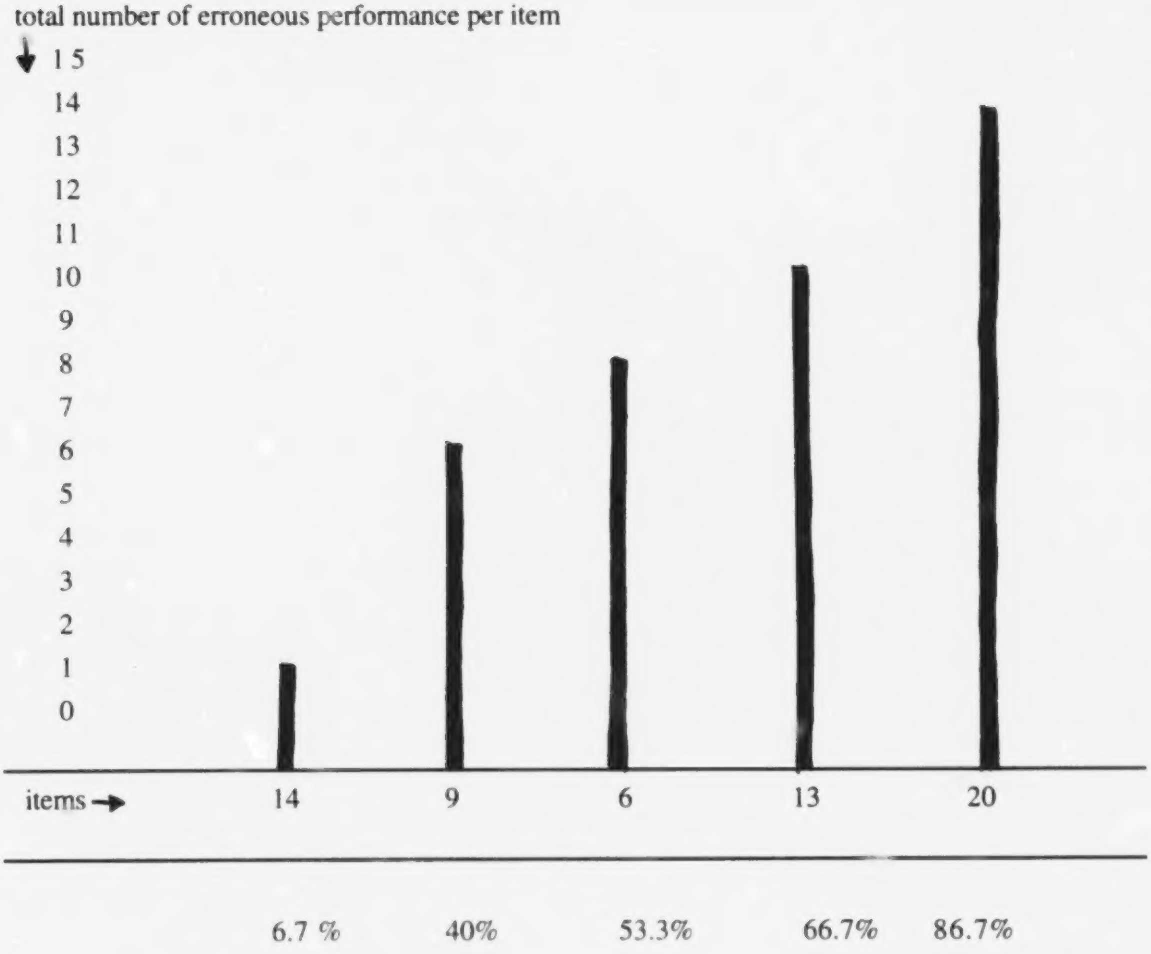
The question of how difficult the use of the "Future I " tense ranks for German students in comparison with the other tenses referred to in the tests, will be considered as well. 66 The data might reveal interesting information with regard to differences in " tense competence " and "tense performance" depending on which tense problem is dealt with. Possibly the FTs prove to be more based on implicit or explicit knowledge than the OTs. Since this aspect is not directly linked with the question of transfer of competence to performance in regard to future tense items, hypotheses will not be introduced.

5. 1. 1 The Passive Grammar Test as a Level of Competence Test

This test provides information about the students' degree of "recognition knowledge" and their ability to use their "receptive monitoring device" (Hecht/Green 1989: 576). Of interest here is the correct use of the "will future" in general (item 6), "will future" after "I think" (item 14), the "will future" in subordinate clauses (item 20), particularly in the Conditional "if-pattern"(item 9), and the use of Present Tense with future meaning (item 13). The grammar problems each PGT item addresses has been listed in table 10 on page. The results of the PGT concerning all the tense items are provided in appendix H Appendix K presents each student's results in the PGT in a condensed version. It serves as a basis for table 17. This appendix will also be of importance for the comparison of the degree of transferability of competence to performance of the three schools.

The data of Appendix H and K reveal that in general less than half of all future tense items were identified correctly, namely 49.3 % (100% = 75 possible FT points = 15 x 5 items). Table 17 illustrates which of these FT forms apparently were most difficult for the testees.

Table 17 *Rate of difficulty of future tenses tested in the PGT*

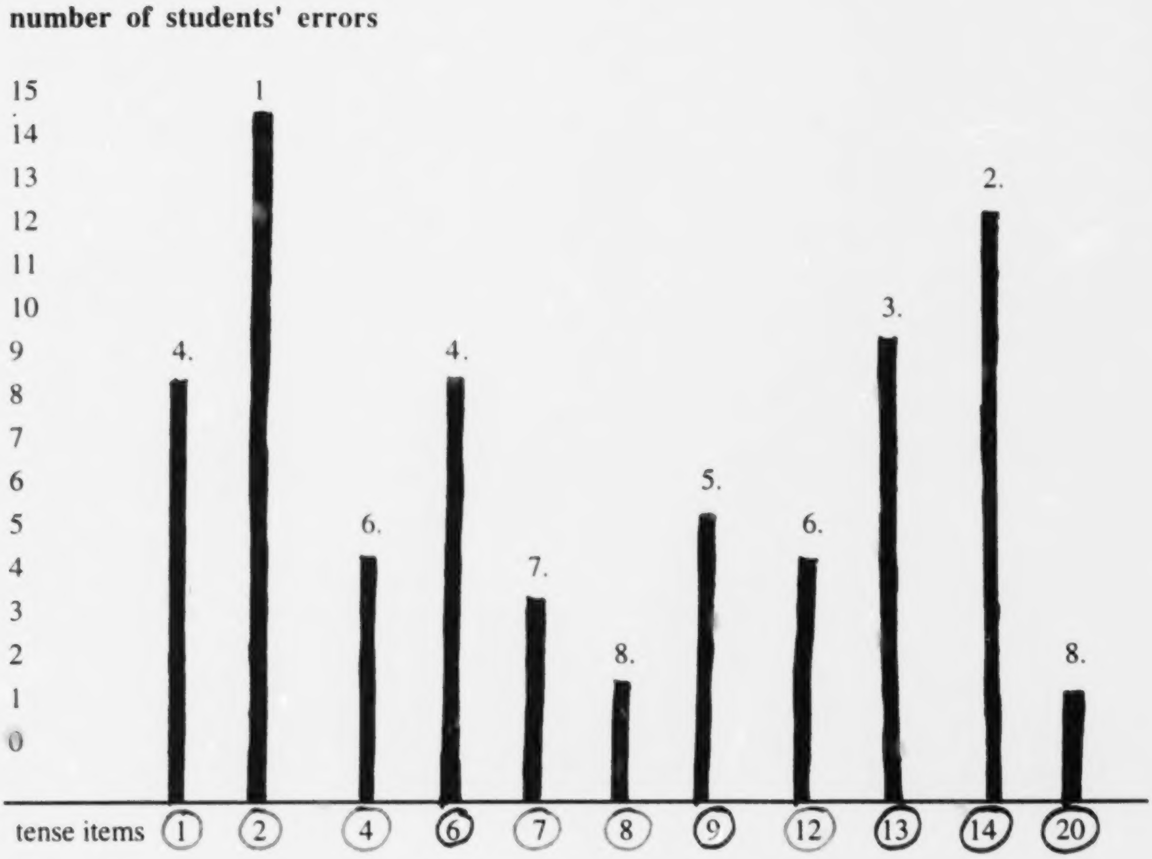


of incorrect student answers
100%= 15x wrong

Least problematic seemed the recognition of "will" after "I think" (6.7 % incorrect) and most difficult the omission of "will" in the subordinate clause (86.7% incorrect). Even though item 9 carries this underlying rule as well, it scores considerably better (60% correct). The fact that item 13, the use of the Present Tense as a future marker, ranks second in difficulty (66.7% incorrect), suggests that it represents an example of the "Ranschburg phenomenon", because it is the structure most commonly used in German and could, therefore, easily be successfully transferred from German into English. Just the opposite is the case though. It is also surprising that the general use of the "will future" (item 6) scores even lower than the " if-pattern" structure (item 9) with not half of the testees being able to identify it correctly (53.3% incorrect). This is particularly unexpected, because the Conditional I pattern is considered a fairly complicated structure for to learn (Bald 1988: 83 pp.). Consequently, the Ranschburg phenomenon might have been at work in the case of item 6 as well, because this future tense structure (but not necessarily semantic meaning) is too similar to the German language and was thus avoided more often than necessary. Particularly noteworthy for the following comparison of the CTs and the PT is that the use of "will" in the Conditional I "if-pattern" rates second among all future tense structures identified correctly (40% incorrect).

In addition, 62.2 % of all OTs have been recognized correctly, as opposed to only 49. 3% of all future tenses. The following chart (table 18) supports the assumption that the FTs are more difficult to recognize than the OTs. This tendency could be interpreted as FTs being apparently less profoundly based on competence than the OTs. A closer look at each student's individual performance of correct and incorrect use of OTs and FTs revealed also that FTs seemed more difficult to deal with than the OTs. Only 13.3 % of all testees (number 5, 35) produced more errors in the OT-category than in the FT-category. (see appendix L)

Table 18: *Number of future tense errors in relation to all other tense it ems tested*



percentage of wrong answers 53.3 93.3 26.7 53.3 20 6.7 40 26.7 66.7 6.7 86.7

100% = 15 wrong answers

● = future tenses
● = other tenses

Note:

The ordinal numbers indicate the items' rating according to their level of difficulty for the 15 test participants. The item identified most often correctly carries the highest number.

The most complicated tense feature appeared to be the Present Perfect, item 2, with a 93.3% incorrect recognition rate. But the next four most problematic tense items are future tense **items 20** 86.7% wrong), **13** (66.7% wrong), **6** (53.3% wrong) and **9** (40% wrong). The fact that four of five future tense structures rank in sequence among the five most difficult of 11 tense structures, suggests their being less well stored as recognition knowledge than the other tense structures, disregarding the Present Perfect.

By far the easiest future tense structure to recognize was apparently the use of **"will" after "think"** (item 14: 6.7 % incorrect), most likely because it is heard very often in class. Thus, it stands in sharp contrast to its fellow FT- structures. Interestingly, the if-pattern III (Past Perfect + would + HAVE + Past participle, item 8) was considered as easy to recognize as item 14. Moreover, as opposed to its positive presentation within the FT-items themselves, the Conditional I if- pattern (item 9: 40% incorrect), seems to have been fairly difficult to recognize in comparison to the total number of tenses tested, ranking fourth most difficult of all tense structures tested 67.

As to the error performance of the three schools in comparison with one another, the data presented in Table 19 was elicited on the basis of appendix A 68.

Table 19: *Incorrect Performance in the PCT: all three schools compared*

SCHOOLS	**SCHOOL A**	**SCHOOL B**	**SCHOOL C**
errors	12	11	15
percent of a total of 38 errors	31.6%	28.9%	39.5%

Obviously, school B performed best in the PGT (28.9% incorrect) with a slight advantage over school A (31.6% wrong). School C performed least well, with 39.5% wrong answers, suggesting that at this school the recognition knowledge is least developed. It also has to be pointed out that none of the schools performed under the 50% level of correctness. Thus the majority of all students at all three schools have performed above average in the PGT, indicating that they all have a sufficient degree of competence (implicit or explicit knowledge).

Though many more aspects could be discussed about this PGT considering the restrictions of this paper, this information has to suffice.

5.1.2 The Implicit-Explicit Test as a Level of Competence Test

This competence test reveals information about the participants' type of competence, their implicit or explicit knowledge. When only explicit, declarative knowledge is demonstrated, the person's level of competence can be seen at the **cognitive level,** according to Anderson the first language acquisition stage (cit. in: Möhle/ Raupach 1989: 199). When only the implicit, procedural knowledge is indicated, it can be assumed that the learner has reached the last, **automatized stage** of knowledge on Anderson's scale. Should both types of knowledge be equally present, it is reasonable to assume that a learner's level of knowledge is at the **associative stage**, where declarative knowledge is transformed to procedural knowledge and both can coexist next to each other (cit. in Möhle/Raupach 1989: 199).

Appendix M shows the results of the use of **item 3**, the **"will future" in the Conditional I "If pattern"**. Out of five tense items tested in this exam (items 2, 3, 6, 9, 10), this is the only one addressing a future tense problem. The analysis reveals that among the respective 15 testees none has exclusively explicit knowledge (type R+C-). This suggests that they all have out-grown the beginner's stage, a result to be expected after almost 6 years of English lessons. 40% of the answers (R-C+) reflect clear *procedural level* of knowledge, because only procedural knowledge has been indicated by the answers. Noteworthy is that after a considerable time of learning English, more than half of all testees (60%), demonstrate an *associative level* of knowledge (R+C+) in Anderson's terms. For school purposes, where the focus is still to a great extent on explicit rule knowledge, this type of knowledge is probably not surprising. [69]

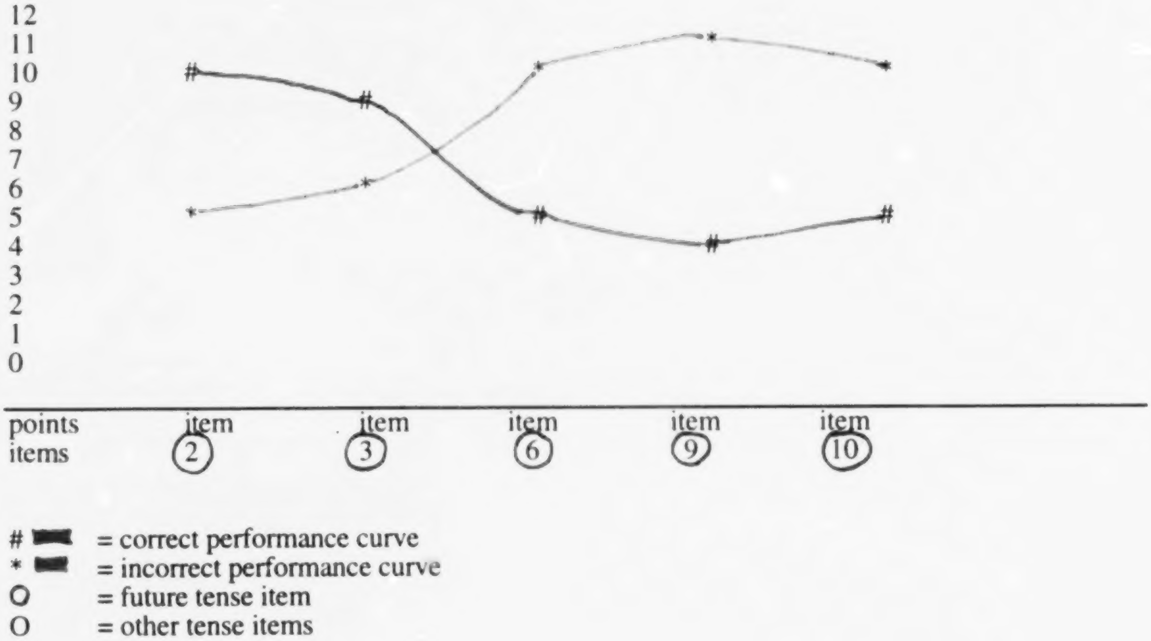
As to the **degree of explicit,** declarative **knowledge**, the analysis of the data revealed that of **all five tense item explanations**, 56 % of the testees' answers were incorrect (100% = 15 x 5 = 75 points). Considered "incorrect" were either wrong answers, not sufficiently specific explanations or no answers at all (N) (See appendix N with the results of all tense item questions per testee). The question is, whether these results are caused rather by a deficit of explicit knowledge about the one FT-item or rather by the four OT items that caused this result to occur ? According to the data presented in Table 22, mostly a lack of rule knowledge about the OTs was to blame for more than half of the answers being dissatisfactory. Only 40% of the rules given about the other tense items were correct, whereas, 60% of the answers were considered correct in regard to the use of "will in the Conditional I pattern. Among the OT- category item 9 seems to have caused most problems as can be seen in table 23.[70]

Table 22: *Error cause for incorrect explanation of rules in IET*

BASIS	RESULTS
4 x 15 = 60 points = 100% **other tenses than future tense**	24 OT points correct = 40%
1 x 15 = 15 points = 100% **will future in Conditional I pattern**	9FT points correct = 60 %

The following table (table 23) has been designed to offer an impression of how the correct and incorrect explanation of the rule underlying the use of "will" in the "if pattern I" structure in the IET relates to the other tense items tested. Again, all answers which were either not specific enough, wrong or were missing entirely, have been categorized "incorrect".

Table 23: *Chronological order of correct/incorrect explanation of grammatical FT-feature in "if-pattern I" in relation to T-items*



These curves illustrate a steady decrease in correct completion of this assignment in the course of the test to provide examples for **explicit knowledge** about an English tense structure. This suggests that for this group of testees the test progression went from " easier" to "more difficult" rule explanations . The future tense item 3 ranks as second best, whereas with the exception of tense item 2, all other tenses, precisely 75% of all OTs 71 caused more problems in being identified by the underlying rule than the FT item.

The following table (Table 24) provides some information about the **number and types of errors** the testees made in the attempt to demonstrate their **explicit knowledge** about the English tense system. As to naming the correct rule for using "will" in the "if-pattern 1" structure, Chart 24 shows that it is the only item which everyone has tried to explain. Additionally, in each category the error rate is much lower than those of the other tenses. Whereas OT-errors amount to 87.7 % of all tense errors, the FT- errors remain with 12.5 % considerably lower. Both observations allow the conclusion that explicit knowledge about this FT- item is on better recall to the testees than any of the other tense items, even if item 2 was performed better than future item 3 (see table 23). However, it should be kept in mind that this drastic difference in incorrect rule explanation could also be due to the fact that only one future item was tested in contrast to four other tense items. Testing this aspect, the division of 42 OT-errors by four, revealed 10.5 errors per OT - item. Since the FT - item produced only 6 errors, the previously stated conclusion is supported 72.

Table 24: *Rule explanation: Number and kinds of errors made in regard to tense items*

CATEGORY	OTHER TENSES (OT)	FUTURE TENSES (FT)
A. Incorrectly explained because of **wrong rule**	**15 = 31.35**	**4 = 8.3%**
B. incorrectly explained because **explanation is not specific enough**	**15 = 31.3 %**	**2 = 4.2%**
C. Wrong because of **no explanation at all**	**12 = 25%**	**0 = 0%**
Total number of errors	42 OT errors	6 FT errors
percentiles	48 total = 100% OTs = 87.5%	48 total = 100% OTs = 87.5%

Finally, the presentation of the IET-results will be concluded with an investigation of the explicit knowledge of the future tense in the Conditional I pattern of each school. The following data (Table 25) were elicited:

Table 25: *IET performance of the future tense in the Conditional I pattern per school*
100% = presentation in each school (5 students each)

ANSWER	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B	SCHOOL C
R+ C-	- 0%	- 0%	- 0%
R-C+	1,2,3,4 80%	31 20%	65 20%
R+ C+	5 20%	32,33,34,35 80%	62,63,64,66 80%

As mentioned before, no school's level of competence has remained on a language learner's beginner's level, because 100% of all testees provided the correct correction of the rule violation, thus exemplifying some of their *procedural knowledge.* 80% of the representatives from school A have indicated that they have a high degree of procedural knowledge, but cannot provide the explicit knowledge. Precisely the reverse situation was found with schools B and C. Here, 80% of each school performances revealed explicit and at the same time implicit knowledge about the future item. According to Anderson's concept, these students would have to perform not as well as the majority of the school A representatives, because they are still at the *associative level,* previous to the *procedural level.* However, when accounting for school reality and its tests, the (R+C+)- performer will most likely deliver better results than the others, because knowing grammar explicitly promises better grades. (see hypothesis IVc)

5. 1 3 The Letter Writing Test as a Level of Communicative

In this *communicative performance test,* the students' free communicative performances included future tense structures which had not been focused on in the previous CTs. These are the "going to" future and the Present Continuous form, when carrying future meaning. Thus, those two future tense items will be considered in this test for the first time in addition to all items tested in PGT. Excluded from the future tense structures considered here is the " I would like to + Verb" structure, even though it is used quite frequently by some testees to respond to an inquiry about plans and wishes for his/her visit to England in the future. In fact, student number 65 did not include one single future tense structure in the letter. Instead, the "I would like " structure was used. Nevertheless, it is not considered for this survey analysis, because none of the consulted grammar reference books counted this structure as one containing future meaning. Appendix O provides an overview of all the future tense structures used by the testees correctly and incorrectly. Since the "will future" is obligatory in the majority of structures, tested also in the PGT as item 6 ("will future" in general), item 9 (in the "if -pattern"), item 14 (after "I think") and item 20 (not in subordinate clause), its correct performance in the letters is particularly focused upon in the first three columns of appendix 0.

Appendix O it makes apparent that, with the exception of production 65 (O%), 2 (25%), 4 (33.3%), 31 (33.3%) and 35 (50%)73, all testees used the "will future" structures more often than alternative future tense structures. Thus a majority of 66.7% of all test participants (lOO% = 15 testees) preferred the "will future" structures to the other future tense structures. It is also noteworthy that 86.7% (100% = 15 letters) of all letter productions showed no errors at all in the use of these "will future" structures (lOO% correct use). Additionally, Table 26 illustrates that an astonishing number of 95.1% of all "will future" structures together (item 6. 9, 13, 14 and 20) were applied correctly 74. This is particularly interesting, when considering that this group made up 64.6% of all future tenses used in the letters. This suggests that if used, these FT-structures were skillfully handled by the learners.

When taking a closer look at the "will future" structures, it becomes apparent that it is not only item 6, the general "will future' which can be found 100% correctly used, but also PGT-items 14 and 20 (see Table 26/27). In the letter they were, however, applied considerably less often, as can be observed in table 27. The most drastic discrepancy between correct and incorrect use occurs in fact with **item 6,** suggesting that the learners had least problems applying this item in the communicative writing task. This assumption is supported by the fact that item 6 is also most frequently used (see tables 26/28).

The use of the **present continuous form,** even though applied second most often of all future tenses used in the letters (7.2%), most often occurred incorrectly (27.3%) (see tables 26/27). Thus, this structure, nonexistant in the German tense system, appeared most difficult to apply in free communicative performance 75.

Third most often used, with 9.4%, was the **"going to" future** and its performance in the letter was 83.3% correct, thus offering the lowest error rate (16.7 %) of all future items used in the LWT (see Tables 25/26). Due to its low error rate in combination with a relatively high frequency of correct use and use in general, the "going to future" can be assumed the second most easily performable in this communicative performance task.

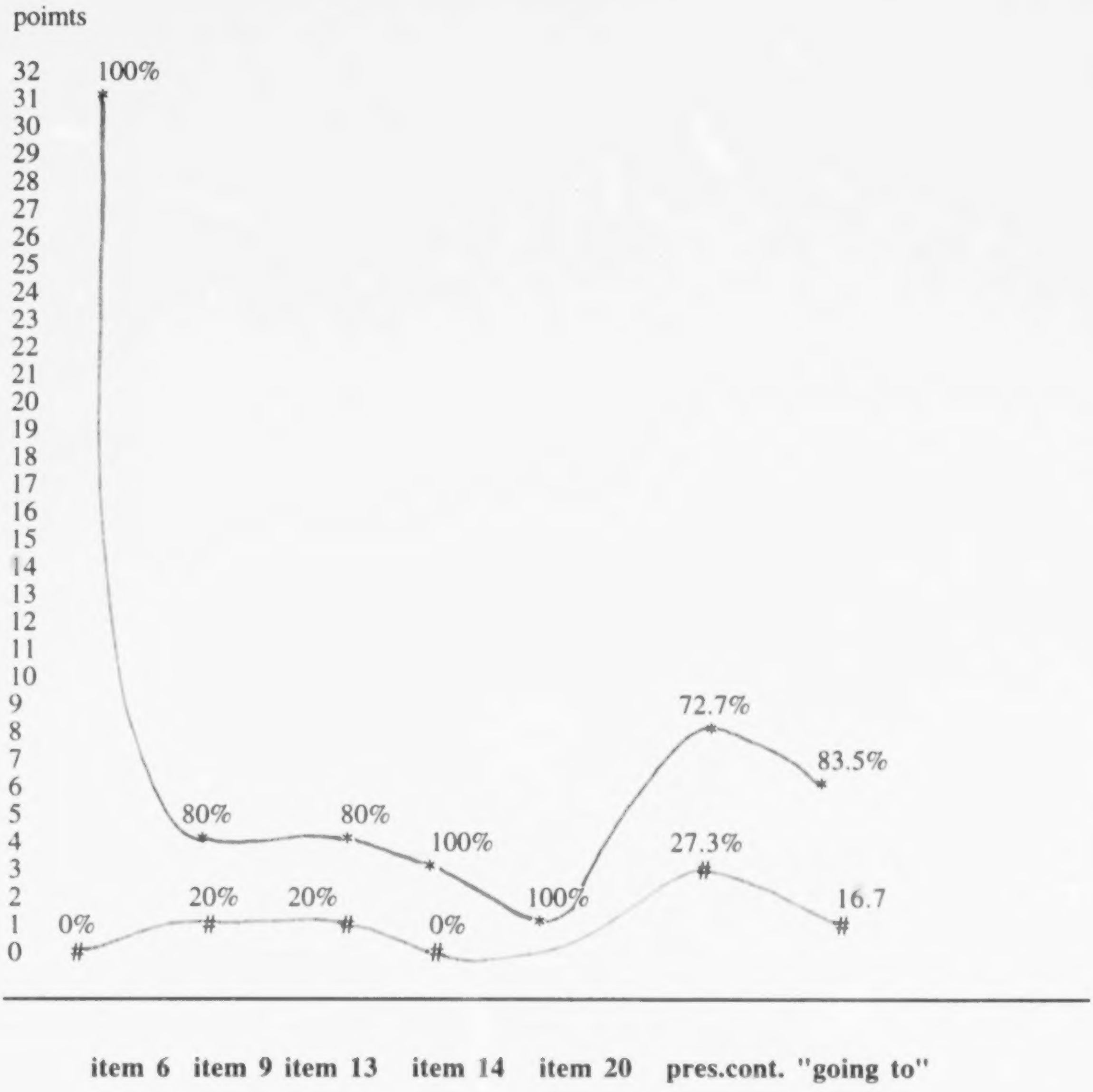
According to the analysis presented in tables 26 and 28, the use of **"will" in the Conditional I pattern** (item 9) and the **Present Tense** with future meaning (item 13) tend to be entirely identical in level of difficulty. Scoring fourth in correct performance and frequency of use, they both show the same error rate (20%), success rate (80%) and total representation (7.8%) in the LWT.

Table 26: *Frequency of use of FT-structures in the LW7 in percentages*

items	**correctly used**	**incorrectly used**	**total number of FT used**	**% of total number of FT used**
items 6,9,14, 20 of PGT	39 (95.1%)	2 (4.9%)	41 (100%)	64.6%
item 6 of the PGT	31 (100 %)	- (0%)	31 (100%)	48.4%
item 9 of the PGT	4 (80%)	1 (20%)	5 (100%)	7.8%
item 13 of the PGT	4 (80%)	1 (20%)	5 (100%)	7.8%
item 14 of the PGT	3 (100%)	- (0%)	3 (100%)	4.7%
item 20 of the PGT	1 (100%)	- (0%)	1 (100%)	1.6%
"going to" future	5 (83.3%)	1 (16.7%)	6 (100%)	9.4%
present continuous form	8 (72%)	3 (27.3%)	11 (100%)	17.2%
total figures	56 (87.5%)	8 (12.5%)	64 (100%)	

Each student's individual performance results concerning the tenses in the LWT can be consulted in appendix P. The focus on these in more detail would lead too far for the purpose of this survey analysis.

Table 27: *Correct/incorrect use of future tense in LWT*

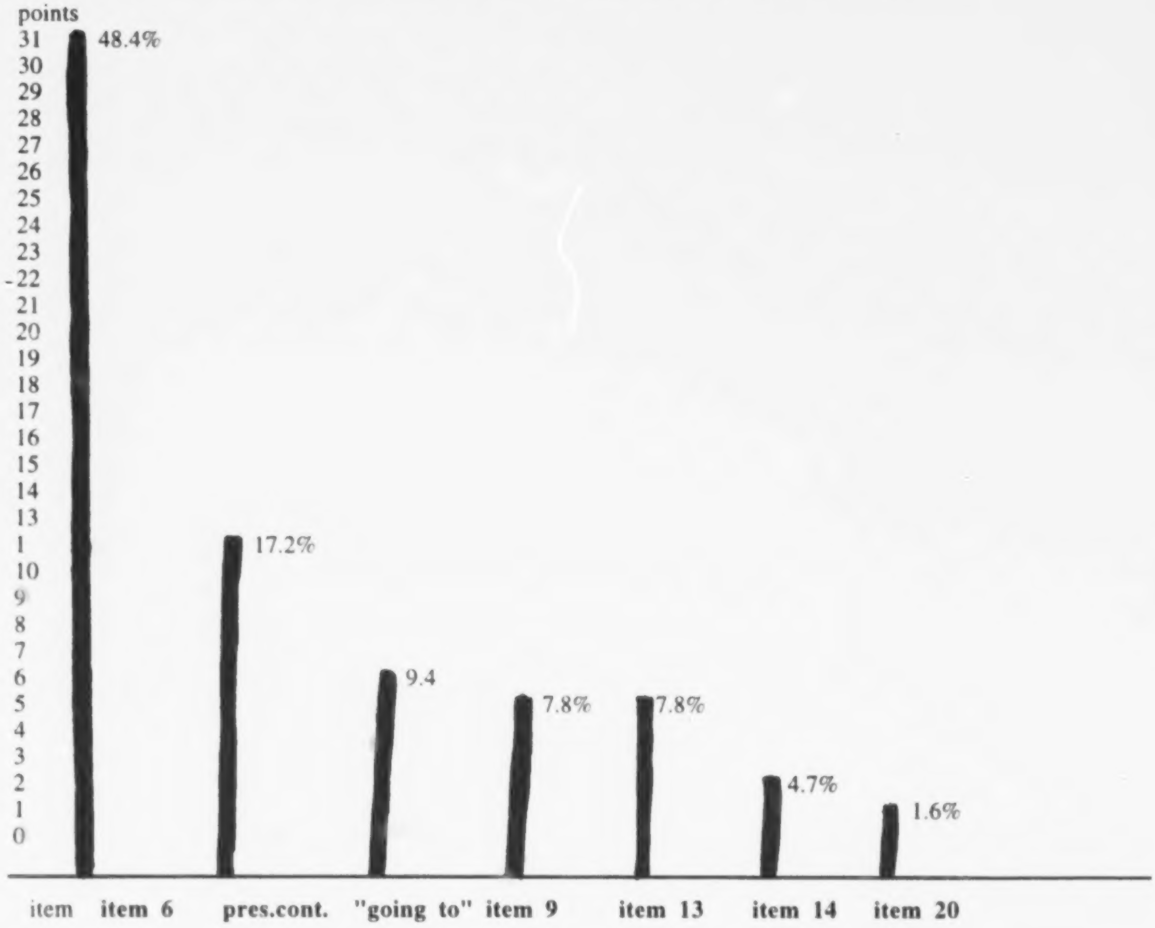


correct performance curve: * ▬

incorrect performance curve: # ▬

ordinal numbers indicate which position in performance the items holds

Table 28: *Chronological frequency ranking of use of future tenses in LWT*



Note: The percentages figures illustrate the percentage of total number of tenses used in the LWT. The ordinal numbers indicate a FT- item's ranking order in comparison to the other FT- items used.

In analogy to the other tests, the **correct and incorrect performance of FTs and OTs** in the LWT will be looked at as well to see if one of the two tense categories tends to be applied more often and more correctly in a LWT.

According to the data presented in Table 29, which is based on the results collected in appendix P, all letter productions indicate that despite so many signals to initiate the application of future tenses, the other tenses were used much more frequently (81.4% as opposed to only 18.6% future tenses, see table 29). In fact, with the exception of testee 62, who used 66.7% FTs in the letter production, all testees applied more OTs than FTs in their letters (see appendix Q). Also, fewer errors were to be found with the other tenses (4.6%) than with the future tense (10.9%). These results support the assumption that the use of the future tense in this communicative performance task was the more difficult tense category of the two to use for testees in a letter writing assignment on the whole.

Table 29: *Relation of future tense items used correctly and incorrectly compared to the correct and incorrect performance of the other tense structures*

FUTURE TENSES USED		OTHER TENSES USED	
TOTAL 64	+ - 57 7	TOTAL 281	+ - 268 13
% OF TOTAL TENSES 100% = 345	% + FTs % - FTs 100% FTs = 64	% 0F TOTAL TENSES 100% = 345	% + OTs % -OTs 100% OTs = 281
18.6 %	+ 89.1% - 10.9%	81.4%	+95.4% - 4.6%

Note: + = correct application in letter
- = incorrect application in letter

A more detailed analysis of each tense type other than the future tense structures cannot be undertaken within the frame of this analysis. Appendix P may serve as a basis for further investigations regarding the comparison of the use of OTs to FTs.

As to the overall performance of school groups A, B and C in regard to the LWT, the following data (table 30) could be collected:

Table 30: *Comparison of correct(+)/incorrect (-) performance of future tenses used by the testees in the LWT per school*

FTs and % of correct/incorrect use	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B	SCHOOL C
Will future	11 +	19 + 2 -	10 +
"going to" future	2+ 2 -	1 +	1 +
present tense	1 -	3 +	1 +
present progressive	2 +	5 + 3 -	2 +
total number used	18x	33x	14x
used incorrectly	16.7%	15.2%	0%
used correctly			

School C participants used FT - structures least often, but if so, then correctly. Participants from school B used FT- structures more than twice as many times in their letters as school C representatives (school B: 33 times, school C: 14 times), and almost twice as many times as school A (18 times). Despite the most frequent use of FTs, school B showed fewer errors than school A (school B: 15.2%, school A 16.7%).

The following considerations led to the conclusion that school B performed best in the LWT: First of all, the letters from school B are by far the longest (average length 247 words) and still show 84.8 % correct use of tenses, whereas school A letters show a correct rate of 83.3%, but are in fact the shortest tests of all (average length 187 words). School B has also performed better than school C, even though the letters from school C are the second longest with an average length of 200 words and no FTs were used incorrectly. With more than twice as many FTs used, school B's 84.8% correct use of the FT (28 in number) offers a better performance than school C with 14 FTs used correctly, even if mathematical calculations revealed that within school C's results this amounts to 100% correct application (14 FTs: school C compared to 15 FTs: school B).

5 . 2 The Test Types in Relation to Each Other

For the reader's convenience, the hypotheses stated in chapter 4.2 will be repeated briefly, before the results of each comparison are presented. First the PGT and the LWT will be analyzed in relation to each other, then the IET and the LWT, followed by a comparison of both CTs with the LWT. Finally, the performance results of the three schools will analyzed. The more hypotheses can be verified, the more the theoretical basis for the transfer of competence to performance at a sufficient degree of 50 % or more will be strengthened. For reasons of consistency and precision, the hypotheses will be discussed in the same sequence as introduced in chapter 4.2. Regardless of whether the hypotheses can be confirmed or not, or whether some can neither prove false nor true due to the data available, they each will be commented on, even if some comments should have to be repeated. Each chapter will also be concluded with a brief summary of the respective results. Should the general outcome of this analysis not meet the expectations sketched in the introduction of part two of this paper, the significance of professor Hecht's Learner Language Project will by no means be deminished.

5. 2. 1 The Passive Grammar and the Letter Writing Test

The discussions and interpretations of the following three hypotheses (I, II, III) are based on the presuppositions stated in chapter 4.2.1 and the material presented In that chapter as well as chapter 4.2.3. It is summarized in a condensed version in appendix R.

Hypothesis I *Those future tense items which have been identified correctly in the PGT have also been used correctly in the LWT by the majority of testees*

The data presented in table 31 reveals that *hypothesis I* **cannot be verified,** because in 8 of 15 productions (53.3 %) the competence shown in the PGT did not appear in the LWT. Thus, not enough cases indicated the transfer of implicit or explicit knowledge (competence) to performance to meet the 50% condition. This result hints at the possibility that these 15 testees rather possess explicit knowledge of the tense features tested rather than implicit knowledge, because otherwise the features identified correctly in the PGT would probably have been applied more often in the letter. The fact that all students, except testee 33, did not use any of the future tense items they had identified correctly in the PGT more than once in the letter confirms this assumption. Moreover, testee 33 did not use any of the features recognized properly in the PGT at all. Instead, he/she used others in the letter. Thus, this discrepancy between competence (recognition knowledge) and the actual performance in the letter even suggests that, depending on the learner, competence is not a necessary basis for correct performance. This performance as the general result seem to support Krashen's non-interface hypothesis. Since 46.7% of the testees' performances do not strengthen his thesis provides evidence for the fact that Krashen's theory can neither be entirely proved nor disproved. Therefore, generalizations are not justifiable.

Table 31: *Comparison of PCT and LWT : Transferability of competence to performance*

TRANSFER SHOWED IN THE LWT	TRANSFER DID NOT SHOW IN THE LWT
1, 3, 5, 32, 34, 64, 65 = 7x = school A 3x school B 2x school C 2x	2, 4, 31, 33, 35, 62, 63, 66 = 8x = school A 2x school B 3x school C 3x
46.7%	53.3%

Hypothesis II *Those future tense items which have not been identified correctly in the PGT are not used correctly by the majority of testees either, or are not used at all in the LWT.*

The bold letters in appendix R draw attention to those cases in which correct application in the letter assignment occurred, despite incorrect performance in the PGT, indicating a lack of grammatical competence. As these cases contradict *hypothesis II*, they are collected in table 32 according to category A (features used, even though no performance was expected at all, and category B (features used correctly, even though they were recognized incorrectly in the PGT).

Table 32: *Data contradictory to hypothesis II*

used despite incorrectness in PGT	**used in LWT despite incorrectness in PGT**
2, 4, 31, 33, 34, 35, 62, 63, 66 = 9 of 15 = 60%	2, 4, 31, 33, 35, 62, 63, 66 8 of 15 = 53.3%
school A 2 testees school B 4 " school C 3 "	11 times with 8 different productions school A 2 testees (2x) school B 3 " (5x) school C 3 " (4x)
= **40%** of all performances in accordance with hypothesis: feature is **not used in LWT,** when answered wrongly in the PGT	= **46.7 %** according to the statement: the majority does **not use correct** feature in LWT, when not correctly identified in the PGT

The fact that in both cases more than 50% of the testees performed in opposition to hypothesis 11 (A: 60%, B: 53.3%), suggests that transfer from the level of competence (implicit or explicit) to performance has not taken place to a sufficient degree. *Hypothesis II* can therefore also **not be verified.** Moreover, of the 8 testees, three (63, 35, 33) did so in regard to two test items, indicating that they most likely are more intuitive learners than cognitive ones. If the high number of such performances is to serve as an example, school B with 45.5 % (= 85 times) provided probably the most intuitive learners. It is also interesting that in 7 out of 11 times (63.7% of this performance pattern), the general "will future" was applied correctly in the letter, even though it had not be identified correctly in the PGT. This suggests that it is apparently easiest to use this structure correctly without thinking consciously about its specific application rules.

Despite all these conclusions, the problem of finding a solid explanation for this unexpected difference in performance remains. If the candidates with such incongruous results had acted on the basis of total automatized, implicit knowledge, often referred to as the "feel" for language, a phenomenon common to native speakers who have never consciously learned the grammar rules about their mother tongue, they should have also been able to recognize the correct option in the PGT. A native speaker would have been able to do so, because his/her competence is definitely of a procedural nature. This however, is not the case. The question remains whether a possible difference in learner types might be the main reason.

Hypothesis III: *The sequence of error rate in the PGT concerning the future tense items should be the same in the LWT.*

As Table 33 illustrates, *hypothesis III* **cannot be confirmed,** because the sequence is not the same. Consequently, this data does not support the idea either that the level of competence, as illustrated in the PGT results, will be reflected with the same intensity in the communicative letter writing performance. Apparently, other factors than just the level of competence are decisive, when correct communicative performance is required.

Table 33: *PGT and LWT error rate sequences in comparison*

IN THE PGT (see table 17) **IN THE LWT (see Table 28)**

POSITION	ITEMS	ERROR RATE	POSITION	ITEMS	ERROR RATE
1.	14	6.7% wrong	1.	6., 14, 20	6.7% wrong
2.	9	40% wrong	2.	"going to"	6.7% wrong
3.	6	53.3% wrong	3.	9, 13	6.7% wrong
4.	13	66.7% wrong	4.	pres. cont.	6.7% wrong
5.	20	86.7% wrong			6.7% wrong

Hence, it can be concluded that neither of these three hypotheses concerning the transfer of competence to performance on the basis of the competence test PGT and the communicative performance test LWT can prove a high enough degree of transferability.

5. 2. 2 The Implicit-Explicit and the Letter Writing Test

The following four hypotheses and their subcategories (IV, V, VI a, b, c, VII and VIII) intend to provide evidence for the transferability of competence, demonstrated in the IET, to performance, exemplified in the LWT. Since the IET only tested implicit and explicit knowledge of future tenses in regard to the use of "will" in the Conditional I pattern, this future tense feature serves as the only means of comparison for the investigation. Only five testees included this grammatical feature once each in their letters. The results and hypothesis interpretations are based on data collected in the following table (table 34). The (+) sign indicates correct use or completion of task, whereas the (-) sign stands for wrong answers or incorrect use of structure. Additionally, as before, the "majority" of testees refers to 50% and above answers.

Table 34: *Performance of the "will" future in the Conditional I- pattern in the IET and the LWT*

IEP		LWT
student 1	R- C+	1 +
student 2	R- C+	-
student 3	R- C+	-
student 4	R- C+	-
student 5	R+ C+	-
student 31	R- C+	1 +
student 32	R+ C+	-
student 33	R+ C+	1 +
student 34	R+ C+	1 -
student 35	R+ C+	-
student 62	R+ C+	-
student 63	R+ C+	1 +
student 64	R+ C+	-
student 65	R- C+	-
student 66	R+ C+	-
=== **total in letters 5:**	100%	**+ -** **4 correct, 1 incorrect** 80% 20%

Hypothesis IV: "Will" *in the Conditional I "if pattern" is only used in the LWT by those testees who have produced at least one correct answer in the IET, demonstrating some level of competence.*

All five testees, who used "will" in the Conditional I pattern in the letter production, had implied at least one type of grammatical knowledge of it in the IET. As can be seen in table 34 and appendix N, IET-productions 1 and 31 indicate only implicit knowledge, whereas productions 33, 34, and 63 demonstrated implicit and explicit knowledge. Thus, *hypothesis IV* has proven **verifiable**, because 100% of the test participants delivered answers in support of the hypothesis. This suggests that grammatical knowledge can lead to correct performance regardless of whether it is implicit and/or explicit knowledge.

Hypothesis IVa: *Most of the testees who properly completed the correction task (R+C+) or (R-C+), will use the structure in the LWT.*

On the basis of the data presented in table 34, this hypothesis has to be **falsified,** because only five out of 15 testees belonging to the stated category actually dared to use the "will" in the Conditional I pattern. This amounts to only 33.3 % and represents a degree of transfer from competence to performance too low to justify the verifiability of hypothesis IVa. Thus, it can be said that transfer occurs, but not to a high enough degree.

Hypothesis IVb: *Hardly any of those who could only name the correct rule for the grammatical structure (R+C-)will apply the structure in the letter.*

Due to the fact that 100% of all testees provided an appropriate correction of the error in the **IET, none** of the material analyzed within the context of this paper can either prove or disprove this hypothesis. Therefore, it might be worthwhile testing it on the basis of a larger test corpus.

Hypothesis IVc: *More of those who could provide the proper correction and the rule (R+C+), thus showing implicit and explicit knowledge, use the structure in the LWT than those who only proved implicit knowledge in the IET (R-C+).*

This hypothesis can be **verified,** because 60% of all the applications of "will" in the Conditional I pattern in the letter assignment had been backed up with the correct rule and the appropriate correction (R+C+: 3 out of 5 times) This also supports that in school reality cognitive grammar practice has its positive effect on the learners, when they are forced to perform in a communicatively oriented situation. As expected, to only know the rule according to which to correct the error seems to be less effective on the whole. (R-C+ = 40%)

Hypothesis V: *Most of those testees who correctly fulfilled both tasks in the IET (R+C+), used the will" in the Conditional I if-pattern correctly as well.*

As opposed to the previous hypotheses IV, IVa, I Vb and IVc, the basis for this investigation is not five times the application of the future tense pattern in the LWT *in general,* but four times the correct use the structure in the letter performances (lOO% correct = 4 times). The analysis revealed that precisely 50% of the "will" structures used in the Conditional I pattern in the LWT refer back to the (R+C+) answer category. 50% of the correct performance in the letter links with the (R-C+)- answer category in the IET. Since the demarcation line for an acceptable degree of transferability from competence to performance lies at 50% and above, *hypothesis V* does but barely support the theory of transferability of competence to performance to a sufficient extent.

Hypothesis VI *The majority of those students who can only complete the correction task properly (R-C+) will use the feature correctly in the LWT.*

Since 50% of the "will" structures in the Conditional I pattern applied correctly in the free letter writing assignment related to the (R-C+)-answer category in the IET (2 out of 4 correct applications in the letter), *hypothesis* VI **cannot be falsified.** At least within this limited frame, it does indicate the absolute minimum degree of transferability of competence to performance on the basis of implicit knowledge only. This cognitive basis, qualifying as procedural level of knowledge, according to Anderson (cit. Möhle/Raupach 1989:190, suggests that the combination of implicit and explicit knowledge is not necessarily a better preparation for correct communicative performance in letter writing76.

Hypothesis VII: *Conversely, when only the rule could be provided correctly (R + C-), the majority of testees will not use the structure correctly in the LWT.*

Hypothesis VII provides further prove that the corpus analyzed in this paper is too small to deliver appropriate material for this situation. None of the testees considered in this analysis had corrected the error inaccurately or not at all. Therefore, this hypothesis can neither be contradicted nor certified. Thus, it can neither support the transferability thesis nor weaken it until a greater number of test results are taken into account.

Hypothesis VIII: *When none of the IET - tasks could be completed appropriately (R-C-), no applicability of the feature is expected in the LWT.*

Just as hypothesis IVb and VII, *hypothesis VIII* can also neither be verified nor falsified and would need to be tested on the basis of a larger test proportion. None of the productions analyzed in this investigation gave any example of a total lack of either explicit or implicit knowledge (competence).

In general, it can be concluded that three of those seven hypotheses77 strongly call for an investigation on a larger scale to either be contradicted or confirmed. Should they still not qualifiy for either interpretation, it would be justifiable to eliminate them for reasons of inapplicability/ irrelevance. At this point, however, this step is not yet advisable. Also, the fact that the results of hypotheses V and VI are just on the borderline of verifiability with precisely 50%, encourages the testing of these hypotheses on wider scale. Since only hypothesis IVa had to be definitely falsified, testing more student productions on the IET-LWT hypotheses promises more interesting results.

5.2.3 Both Competence Tests and the Performance Test

Since the only grammatical item common to all three tests is the "will" future" in the Conditional I if-pattern, both competence tests can only be compared on the basis of this FT-feature with the LWT-productions. Again, the limit for an acceptable degree of transferability of competence to performance is 50% and above. For reference, the following table (table 35) has been compiled. It presents the data on which the following hypotheses are based, the expected results and the actual results per testee. To be able to treat the complexity of *hypothesis VIV* with scientific precision, it has been subdivided into eight minor hypotheses. According to the presuppositions stated in chapter 4.2.2, the following results and interpretations developed:

Table 35: *Performance of the "will" future in the Conditional I pattern in all three tests*

Hypothesis	**PGT**	**IET**	**IET**	**LWT**	**LWT**	
		Rule	**Correction**	**expected results**	**results**	
					-	+
VIVa	+	+	+	+	35,62, 5	33
VIVb	+	-	-	-	none	
VIVc	-	+	+	+	3.4 65	1
VIVd	-	-	-	-	none	
VIVe	+	+	+	+	24,64 66, 32	63
VIVf	+	-	-	-	none	
VIVg	-	+	+	+	2	31
VIVh	-	-	-	-	none	

Note: The (+) signs indicate correct completion of the task. The (-) marks wrong completion of the task in the IET and wrong or no application in the LWT. This way, all testees were included in the survey. This step was also considered necessary, because otherwise, hardly any analysis material would have been available. Even now, the material is not extensive enough, as the results of the following analysis will show.

Hypothesis VIV : *The key issue for proper performance in the LWT is the correctability o the grammatical error, not a positive or negative result in the PGT. When the error could be corrected properly, correct performance is expected in the LWT as well in the majority of cases. Thus, this central hypothesis is confirmed, when* most *of the hypotheses are not contradicted.*

To deal with this hypothesis at this would be contradictory to the course of analysis, because answers would be given prematurely. Therefore, it will be considered after the analysis of subcategories in the conclusion to this chapter.

Hypothesis VIVa *The majority of those testees who have performed 100% correct in the PGT and the IET will use the "will" future in the Conditional I- pattern correctly.*

75% of those four students who had performed 100% correct in both competence tests performed contradictory to *hypothesis VIVa* by not using the "will" in the if pattern at all. Only 25% performed according to the expectation. Therefore, this hypothesis **cannot be confirmed**, because the degree of transferability from competence to performance is below the set average of 50%+.

The majority of these testees find themselves at an interlanguage stage where they do not as yet dare to use a grammatical feature in free performance which is already stored on the *associative level,* according to Anderson. If *fossilization* does not occur, they should soon be ready to do so as 25% of them have demonstrated already.

Hypothesis VIVb *Most of those testees who performed correctly in the PCT and the IET, except when having to correct the error, will not use this knowledge correctly in the LWT.*

Since **none** of the testees made an error in the correction task of the IET, this hypothesis can neither be validated nor contradicted. Again, more test productions would have to be analyzed to find an answer.

Hypothesis **VIVc**: *When every task in the PGT and the IET has been completed properly except naming the rule underlying the grammatical feature, most letter productions will provide example for correct use of "will" in the Conditional I if-pattern.*

As with hypothesis VIVa, *hypothesis VlVc* has to be **falsified**. This is due to the fact that 75% of all students who had performed as described in both competence tests (3 out of a total of 4 testees) did not perform as expected in the LWT. They did not use the respective future tense pattern at all. Only 25% of the testees supported the hypothesis with their correct performance of the "will" structure in the Conditional I pattern. This high discrepancy between correct and incorrect or no use at all seems to indicate that , at least in this group of testees, knowing the rule (explicit knowledge) has a more positive effect than originally expected. From their performance results in the CTs the testees had indicated more implicit than explicit knowledge, which, according to Anderson (cit. in Möhle/Raupach 1989: 199), should have made a correct performance or a use of the future tense pattern much more likely than it actually occurred. One of the reasons for this low communicative performance despite the indicated implicit knowledge may be that this group of test participants consists of more rule- oriented than intuitive learners. Consequently, when the rule cannot be provided, they do not feel ready to apply their knowledge in a free communicative performance such as the letter writing assignment 78.

Hypothesis **VIVd**: *The majority of testees will presumably not perform correctly in the LWT, when only the PGT has been completed correctly but not any of the IET tasks.*

This hypothesis serves as another example for too little testing material being available to either falsify or verify *hypothesis VlVd* . Every one of the 15 tetstees provided a correct correction in the IET.

Hypothesis **VIVe**: *Correct use of "will" in the Conditional I if-pattern in the LWT is assumed by the majority of testees, when only the IET has been completed 100% correctly (R+C+) but not the PGT.*

This is the third hypothesis within this set which **cannot be confirmed.** Here 80% of those testees who had indicated their implicit and explicit knowledge without correct performance in the PGT, performed contrary to the expectation. Interestingly, 25% of those unexpected results in the LWT were due to incorrect use, whereas the other 75% were caused by no use of the respective structure at all. This is the only situation in which incorrect performance is actually based on a grammatical error in the application.79

Since only 20% of this group of performers applied the "will" in the Conditional I pattern, correctly in the LWT as expected, it can be concluded that transfer of competence to performance does not occur to a defined condition of 50% or above. Additionally, this result suggests again that the majority of these testees are more likely to be rule-oriented learners than intuitive ones. This might also be due to a teaching style which focuses more on form than on content and communicative language practice so that the learners have problems applying their knowledge in a communicative performance task such as the letter writing test.

Hypothesis VIVf: *Providing no correct answers except the correct rule underlying the grammatical feature, does not guarantee correct performance in the LWT for the majority of the testees.*

Again, since **none** of the test participants provided any example of his/ her implicit or explicit knowledge, the hypothesis cannot be tested. When a larger test body is consulted, it might be either verifiable or falsifiable.

Hypothesis VIVg: *The majority of testees will perform correctly in the LWT, when no other but the correction task has been completed properly.*

Hypothesis VIVg is the only one which **cannot be contradicted** within this set of hypotheses. Compared to all other hypothesis- VIV results, least incorrect performance of the FT-structure has been noticed among testees. Only 50% of the "will" future in the Conditional I structure was used contrary to the expectation stated in the hypothesis, again due to no application in the letters at all. Thus, 50% of the performance in the letters confirms the hypothesis. Since this the minimum degree of transfer of competence that has to show in the communicative performance test, it is but barely verified 80.

Hypothesis VIVh : *No correct performance in the LWT appears, when no explicit or implicit knowledge could be exemplified in the PGT or the IET.*

Since **none** of the test results revealed a complete lack of competence, this hypothesis can neither be confirmed nor contradicted. It requires investigations on a larger scale to do so.

In summary, 50% of these eight hypotheses call for continuing research analysis based on a larger number of test material, because on the basis of the present data it is impossible to verify or falsify them. Of the 50% left to support or contradict **hypothesis VIV,** 3 hypotheses proved not confirmable (37.5%) and only one (12.5%) certifiable. On the grounds of this overall outcome, *hypothesis VIV* can also neither be verified nor falsified until extended investigations have been conducted. To altogether invalidate this major hypothesis on the basis of only one confirmed and three contradicted hypotheses, is not justifiable for the same reason.

5.2.4 The Three Schools and Their Overall Indication of Transferability of Competence to Performance

On the basis of the premises stated in 4.2.4., the following two hypotheses are investigated. They are concerned with the overall tendency of transferability of competence to performance of the three schools compared. The following table (Table 36) offers the material on which the interpretation is based. It has been collected from the results presented in chapter 5.1.

Table 36: *Performance of schools A, B ,C in comparison*

TESTS	1. POSITION	2. POSITION	3. POSITION
PGT	B 28.9% wrong	A 31.6% wrong	C 39.5% wrong
IET	B+C 80% (R+C+) 20% (R-C+)	A 20% (R+C+) 80% (R-C+)	– –
LWT	B FTs 33x 84% correct	A FTs 18x 83.3% correct	C FTs 14x 100% correct

Hypothesis X: *The school which performs best/second best in the LWT, also has performed best /second best in he competence tests.*

As table 36 illustrates, *hypothesis X* can be **confirmed.** School B has delivered the best results of all three schools in both competence tests with the lowest error rate of 28.9 % wrong choices and 80% of all answers in the IET belonging to the performance category (R+C+). As expected, school B also qualified best in the communicative performance task to write a response letter to a British pan-pal by applying 84% of all 33 future tenses used correctly.

This result imposes that obviously within this school group the transfer of competence to performance took place accordingly. Either all five testees have had enough appropriate training in class to transfer their grammatical knowledge into correct performance so that a fairly consistent transferability was shown, or/and they belonged to the kind of learners who are not so grammar rule-oriented and dependent to feel inhibited by their explicit knowledge in a communicative performance task such as the letter writing assignment. Since no information about these aspects was available, they remain speculations. However, they are considered important aspects to include in further interpretations of results about competence and performance tasks given to test personnel.

For school A, the same discussion points apply as expressed with regard to school B, because its representatives presented the same consistent performance as school B, only with a lower success rate, continuously ranking second. The fact that school A was the only school delivering the opposite results in the IET than the other two schools, that is 80% IET-answers of the type (R-C+), speaks for the following: This group of students perform second best in the communicative performance task, despite most of them not having been able to indicate explicit rule knowledge in the IET. Thus, it seem the 38.4% correct answers in the PGT seem to rely rather on implicit knowledge than explicit, because the latter could hardly be indicated in the IET (20%). Consequently, good (but not outstanding) performance in a communicative performance task such as the letter writing test is possible mainly on the basis of implicit knowledge. The consistent results also confirm the assumption that school A representatives consist mainly of spontaneous, intuitive students, able to apply their procedural knowledge well. In fact, they appear in general the most spontaneous of all three school representatives, because the majority relies on implicit knowledge in the application of future tenses in the communicative letter production.

Compared to school B's overall performance, school A's results suggest, however, that (R+C+) knowledge of the grammatical FT- items lead to better results than the (R-C+) type of competence. This in particular, because the overall results of correct use of future tenses in the LWT of school A and C do not differ much. In fact, they differ only by one performance (school C 14x 100% correct, school A in general 15x 100% and 3x incorrect).

Hypothesis XI : *The school with the weakest results in the LWT will also have performed least successful with both of the competence tests.*

As opposed to the issue of the best performing school, a school's least successful performance in the LWT cannot directly be referred to a consistently bad performance in the competence tests, as table 36 indicates. Accordingly, *hypothesis XI* has to be **falsified.**

Interestingly, school C's lowest performance in the LWT corresponds to its also lowest performance in the PGT, indicating that the testees' general recognition knowledge has developed or been trained least of all in comparison to the overall performance of the other two schools. What does "not fit" in the picture, however, is the fact that school C performed as well as school B, when asked to give examples of its implicit and/or explicit knowledge, thus ranking first position together with school B. Alongside with school B, school C holds the first position in the IET.

One reason for this extreme inconsistency within the two competence tests might lie in the formulation of the task and the type of test itself. The representatives of school C were able to apply their implicit and explicit knowledge 'actively' in the IET much better than in the PGT, probably because they had been explicitly asked to do so. The PGT did not only differ in task, but also did not supply the testees with such a well defined assignment. The only information the test participants had, was the context in which the grammatical issues where embedded and the assignment to check the correct version. Depending on the learner type, this can cause confusion, particularly, when only slight differences in form occur in the choices.

Looking at school C's performance in the LWT, it does not seem enough to label it the one with the lowest level of satisfactory performance in general. The kind of result the school delivered in this test as such is interesting as well. It suggests that the five testees from this school belong more to the cautious, rule-oriented learner type than to the intuitive type. More rule-oriented learners do obviously not feel so easily inhibited about performing their implicit knowledge due to the presence of explicit knowledge. School C used the least number of FT-structures in the letters of all (14FTs) and at the same time got all of them right (100% correct use of FTs). This suggests the cautious application of a FT-structure. Only, when very sure that the structure is correct, would the learner form school C write it into the letter. Despite this perfect result, school C ranked last, because the other schools used more FTs and in average got more tenses right than school C (see annotation 81).

This assumption of school C representatives consisting mostly of rule-dependent cognitive learners is confirmed by the surprisingly inconsistent performance in the CTs, described above. A spontaneous, intuitive kind of learner group would probably not have shown such a high error rate in the PGT while performing so extremely well in the IET. Additionally, such a learner type would most likely not have been so easily confused by a certain task formulation as a rule-oriented one would tend to be, because he/she would not depend so much on a particular formulation or keywords to trigger the proper knowledge.

To summarize, the data gathered in Table 36 illustrate that competence is in fact transferable to performance. Otherwise, in the most extreme case, no future tenses would have been used in the LWT. The better the results in the CTs, the better they were in the LWT. The degree of actual transfer depends on various factors though, which are difficult to approach scientifically. Among these are for instance the consideration of learner types and their reaction towards test types such as those analyzed here, or the kind of language training the teachers had chosen for their groups to teach and practice the future tense items (more cognitively oriented or more commmunicatively oriented teaching methods). This is also considered the reason for the fact that only one of those two hypotheses was verifiable.

6. Conclusion

Within the frame of this paper, first the theoretical background of the notion of *competence* and *performance* has been presented, considering its historical development in linguistics, psychology and foreign language learning theory. Also included were its effects on foreign language methodology, since the following analysis, one part of an empirical study conducted at the university of Munich, Germany, was meant to provide useful information for instructors on how to best teach grammatical issues to guarantee as advanced a level of correct performance in a communicative task as possible at a certain interlanguage stage.

After the empirical research project, the testing procedures, the test population and the three test types relevant for the respective investigation were introduced, twelve major hypotheses were stated. These were to elicit whether he theories of the transferability of competence to performance can be supported. Moreover, they were to offer insight into whether a minimum of 50% transfer of knowledge to communicative performance was achieved. Only when this minimum was reached, the hypothesis was considered verified. According to these statements, the test material of fifteen testees, based on two competence tests, the Passive Grammar Test and the Implicit-Explicit Test, and one communicative performance Letter Writing Test, were analyzed. The matter of interest was the use of future tense structures by German tenth graders at the *Gymnasium*. The results of the competence tests were compared with those of the performance test. Before the actual presentation and discussion of whether the hypotheses could be proved true or false, the results of each test type were presented in necessary detail. Based on this information, the hypotheses were finally tested and interpreted.

In many cases I had to speculate about the explanation of a particular performance which did not meet the conditions of the accepted level of transfer. It would have been helpful to have access to information about the general teaching style in each of the classes, which might explain a certain lack of positive response in one case or another (see respective discussions). Also, every learner behaves differently in different testing situations, regardless of the teaching method he/she has been exposed to previously. A more cognitively oriented learner, for instance, might perform better in free performance, when being able to rely on explicit knowledge, whereas a more spontaneous character might be inhibited in free speech production, when being confronted with explicit knowledge.

Though it is clear that such data is generally difficult to acquire, it would prove useful, because the test population considered for this investigation turned out to be quite limited. This allows only for restricted generalizations of the results presented. It also means that individual factors such as those mentioned above are suspected to have considerably influenced the outcome and that the results are definitely true for this particular group of testees only.

The assumption is strongly supported by the fact that processing some data through the Mann Whittney statistical significance test did not reveal the desired answer. The figures seemed too similar to provide sufficient ground for conclusive results. Thus, it is impossible to claim the presented results as generally occurring within any set of test population. To test the potentials of the hypotheses presented on a larger scale would therefore be necessary.

Looking at this aspect in more detail, it became apparent, that in fact eight hypotheses (36.4%) 82 could neither be verified nor falsified. Of these eight, 50%, including hypothesis VIV, were major hypotheses. This is particularly disappointing, since hypothesis VIV stands for the most complex question of transferability of competence to performance in the entire analysis project, comparing both competence test's results with those of the performance test. No answer can be given, because half of its eight sub-hypotheses could neither be confirmed nor contradicted. Additionally, of the five major hypotheses concerned with the IET and the LWT, two major ones could not provide a definite result (VII, VIII = 40%). These details demonstrate how little the potentials of these hypotheses could be exhausted, because of lack of sufficient testing material.83

Another means of providing the analysis material with more substance for further research on the performance of the future tense items in communicative tasks would simply amount to adding more future tense items to the IET. For this analysis, the only future tense item addressed in this test is the "will" future in the conditional I if-pattern. Consequently, when comparing the results of the IET and the LWT as well as all three test together, the number of examples to investigate was limited. In fact, the structure was only present once each in five letters. This fact and the result of the significance tests suggest that the corpus for analysis be enlarged for scientifically based generalizations 84.

For the above reasons, I recommend a continuation of the analysis of the transfer of grammatical knowledge about the English future tense structures to correct performance in a communicative setting on a wider basis of test material and population.

Despite the restrictions put on the generalizations of the achieved results, it can be said that all testees, except testee 65, who did not use one single future tense structure tested in the CTs in the letter production (= 6.7%), gave evidence of a transfer of competence to performance (93.3%). Furthermore, none of the verifiable or falsifible hypotheses provided counter evidence to the general transferability of competence to performance. Therefore, this theory can be considered certified. Though the non-interface position cannot be disproven, the interface position and the variability position have found support.

As to the satisfactory degree of successful transfer of grammatical knowledge with regard to the use of future tenses in communicative performance tasks (50%+), only 42.9 % of those hypotheses having been backed up with a definite answer (false/true), could definitely be confirmed (6 out of l4), 57.1% (8 of 14) did not meet with the expectation. This calls for more precise training to improve the actual applicability of competence in a communicative task such as a letter writing test, at least for the group of testees considered for this analysis.

Even though this would probably mean more intense concentration on communicative language learning strategies and familiarization of the learners with communicative performance tests from an early stage on, cognitive grammar practice is not to be abandoned. After all, as these test results indicate, transfer of competence does occur. Grammar practice should be kept in a communicatively oriented framework to make transfer easier. Thus, I agree with Nina Garrett, when she claims

> ... that to whatever extent grammar is dealt with. it should be processing grammar. I do believe that some explicit explanation and drilling of grammar can probably be done better, eventually, by intelligent computer lessons than by teachers - and that will free teachers to spend more time on communicative activities.
>
> (Garrett 1986: 143)

In spite of the restrictions put on the actual generalization of the results, I hope to have delivered some valuable contribution to Professor Hecht's research project "Learner Language". Maybe some of the data presented in this paper can serve as a basis for an investigation on a larger scale. After all, we must not forget in view of a United Europe that the demand is even stronger now for communication skills and intercultural awareness than ever before. Teachers are challenged to focus much more on training communicative skills and the so-called "feel" for the foreign language. This project can provide extremely valuable information for teachers in this respect.

Appendix: Test Material and Additional Tables

Appendix A: Terminology of Types of Knowledge in Cognitive Psychology and Foreign Language Learning Theory and Methodology

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AUTHOR **TERMINOLOGY**

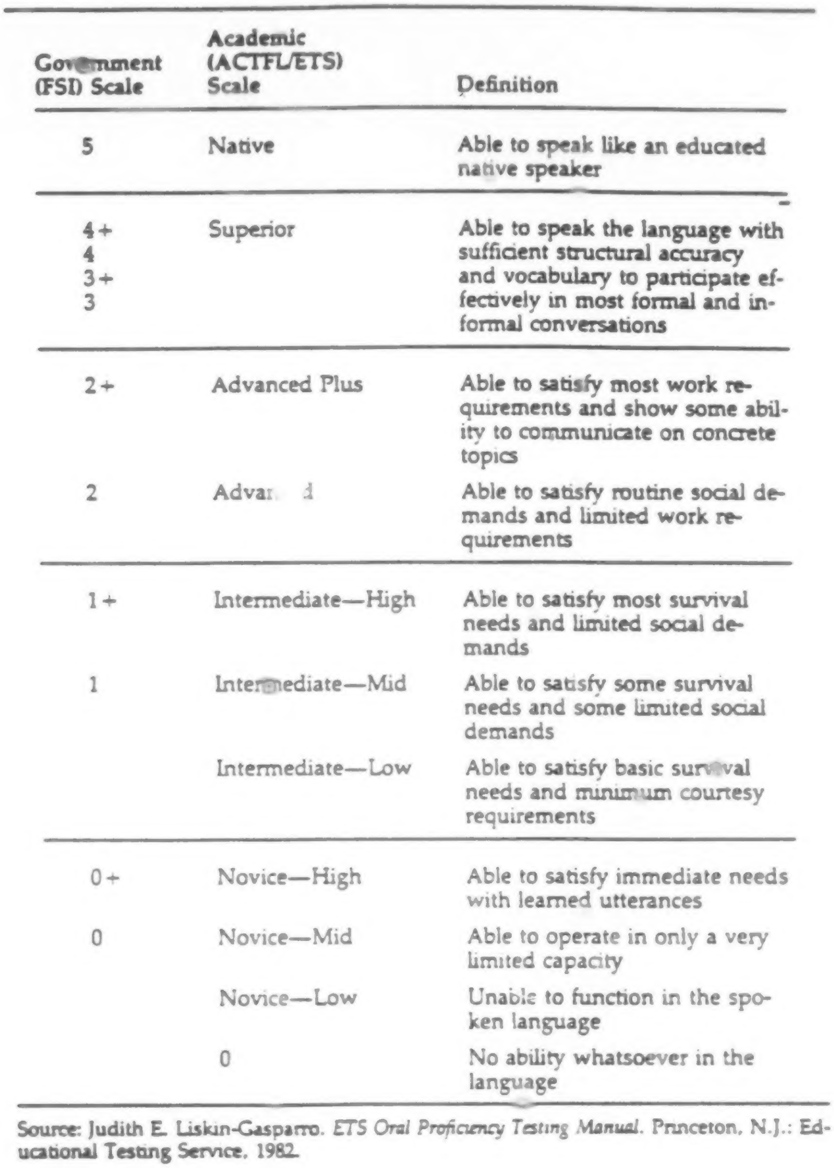
COGNITIVE PSYCHOOGY

Anderson/Glover (1976/1990)	declarative knowledge	prodedural knowledge

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY AND

Bialystok (1979 a, b)	explicit knowledge	implicit knowledge
Faerch/Kaspar (1984, 1985) Kasper (1986) Kennedy (1988)	declarative knowledge	procedural knowledge
Sorace (1985)	formal knowledge	procedural knowledge
Hecht/Hadden (1992)	declarative knowledge (of grammar)	procedural knowledge (of grammar)
Krashen/Terrell (1983) Terrell (1991) Houck/ Robertson/ Krashen (1987)	conscious knowledge learned knowledge	sub/unconscious knowledge acquired knowledge
Bialystok / Sharwood-Smith (1985)	control	knowledge
Shiffrin/Schneider (1977) Mc Laughlin (1983, 1990)	controlled processing	automatic processing

Appendix B: Oral Proficiency Guidelines



Government (FSI) Scale	Academic (ACTFL/ETS) Scale	Definition
5	Native	Able to speak like an educated native speaker
4+ 4 3+ 3	Superior	Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations
2+	Advanced Plus	Able to satisfy most work requirements and show some ability to communicate on concrete topics
2	Advanced	Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements
1+	Intermediate—High	Able to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands
1	Intermediate—Mid	Able to satisfy some survival needs and some limited social demands
	Intermediate—Low	Able to satisfy basic survival needs and minimum courtesy requirements
0+	Novice—High	Able to satisfy immediate needs with learned utterances
0	Novice—Mid	Able to operate in only a very limited capacity
	Novice—Low	Unable to function in the spoken language
	0	No ability whatsoever in the language

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

(Omaggio 1986: 13)

Appendix C: Error Survey Chart

Pupil Number:

School:

Task:

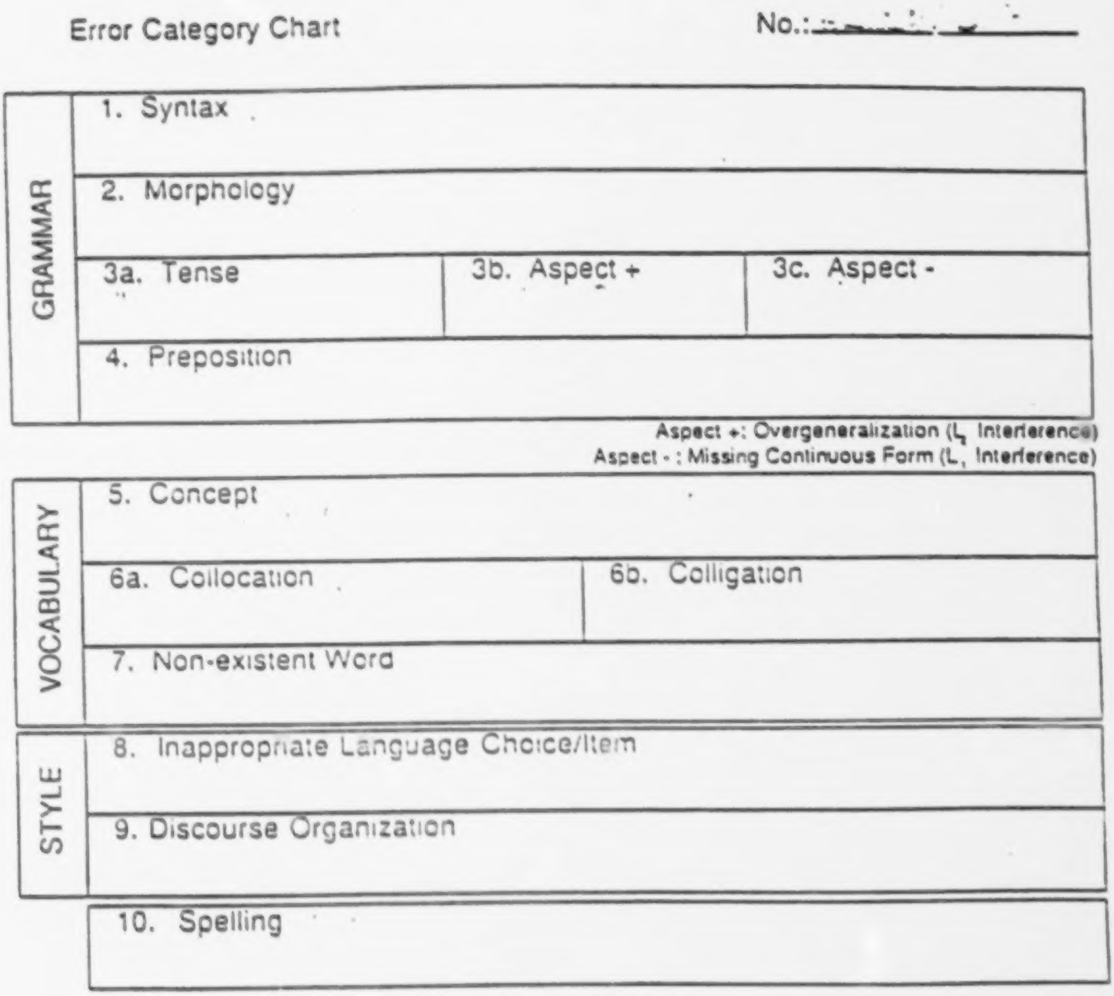
Error in Context	EM 1	AM	EM 2	Majority Error	Majority Category

Number of Majority Errors (a) =

Number of Accepted Words (b) =

Error Rate (a/bx100) =

Appendix D: Error Category Chart



Error Category Chart

No.:

GRAMMAR	1. Syntax		
	2. Morphology		
	3a. Tense	3b. Aspect +	3c. Aspect -
	4. Preposition		

Aspect +: Overgeneralization (L_1 Interference)
Aspect - : Missing Continuous Form (L_1 Interference)

VOCABULARY	5. Concept	
	6a. Collocation	6b. Colligation
	7. Non-existent Word	

STYLE	8. Inappropriate Language Choice/Item
	9. Discourse Organization
	10. Spelling

Appendix E: Passive Grammar Test Material

Welche der angebotenen Lösungen ist jeweils die richtige? Lies Dir die Beispielsätze genau durch und treffe anschließend Deine Entscheidung, indem Du ein X in das richtige Kästchen setz t.

Schulart: ....

Jahrgangsstufe: ......

Geschlecht: ....

Zeugnisnote: ....

1. Patient: I keep thinking I'm a dog.

Doctor:
☐ How long did you feel like this?
☐ How long do you feel like this?
☐ How long have you been feeling like this?
☐ How long are you feeling like this?

2. Frank: Do you know Mr. Smith?

Peter: Of course, I do.

☐ We know each other for almost two years.
☐ We're knowing each other for almost two years.
☐ We've been knowing each other for almost two years.
☐ We've known each other for almost two years.

3. Father: How did you get to France?

Son:
☐ We got there with the train.
☐ We got there in the train.
☐ We got there by train.
☐ We got there by the train.

4. Shop assistant: Half an hour ago a man came into my shop.

☐ He smoked a cigarette.
☐ He was smoking a cigarette.
☐ He has been smoking a cigarette.

5. On the phone:
☐ We plan to arrive tomorrow evening in York.
☐ We plan tomorrow evening to arrive in York.
☐ We plan to arrive in York tomorrow evening.

6. Lady on the phone: Doctor, my son has just swallowed a coin.

Doctor:
☐ I'm going to come at once.
☐ I'm coming at once.
☐ I'll come at once.
☐ I come at once.

7. Teacher to pupils:

☐ If I were you, I worked harder.
☐ If I were you, I would work harder.
☐ If I am you, I would work harder.
☐ If I be you, I work harder.

8. Mary is regretting her marriage to John:

☐ If I had only known him better, I wouldn't marry him.
☐ If I knew only him better, I hadn't married him.
☐ If I had only known him better, I wouldn't have married him.
☐ If I have only known him better, I wouldn't have married him.

9. Peter and Sue are talking about next weekend:

☐ If it rains, we'll stay at home.
☐ If it rains, we stay at home.
☐ If it will be raining, we'll be staying at home.
☐ If it would rain, we're staying at home.

10. Policeman: The station is not far from here.

Tourist:
☐ How long it takes to get there?
☐ How long takes it to get there?
☐ How long does it take to get there?

11. Hotel clerk to manager: A group of ten Americans has just arrived.

☐ They want to know how much does a room without breakfast cost.
☐ They want to know how much a room without breakfast costs.

12. On the telephone:
☐ I ring from Bristol and I would like to know ...
☐ I'm ringing from Bristol and I would like to know ...

13. Announcement over the station loudspeaker:

☐ The next train to London leaves from platform 5 at six o'clock.

☐ The next train to London shall be leaving from platform 5 at six o'clock.

☐ The next train to London is going to leave from platform 5 at six o' clock.

14. A teacher is going to take a group of pupils to a summer camp.

The day before the holidays she says:

☐ I think we have a nice time together.

☐ I think we'll have a nice time together.

☐ I think we're having a nice time together.

15. Mother to daughter: Why don't you go out with Jack anymore?

Daughter: ☐ Because Bill is more gentle and generouser.

☐ Because Bill is gentler and more generous.

16. Somebody is describing a person that he saw yesterday:

☐ He was also wearing a hat.
☐ Also he was wearing a hat.

17. Frank is asking the travel agent about a hotel:

☐ What's the price for the breakfast?
☐ What's the price for a breakfast?
☐ What's the price for breakfast?

18. Shop assistant describing a customer.

☐ The man weared a black suit.
☐ The man wored a black suit.
☐ The man wear a black suit.
☐ The man wore a black suit.

19. The thief tried to escape.

☐ He run out of the shop.
☐ He ran out of the shop.
☐ He ranned out of the shop.
☐ He runned out of the shop.

20. From a letter by a German girl to her English pen-friend.

☐ When I come to England, I'd like to visit Windsor Castle.
☐ When I will come to England, I'd like to visit Windsor Castle.
☐ When I'm coming to England, I'd like to visit Windsor Castle.

Appendix F: Implicit-Explicit Test Material

Arbeitsanweisung für die Schüler:

Auf Blatt 1 sind 12 Sätze, von denen jeder einen Fehler aufweist. Die fehlerhafte Stelle ist unterstrichen. Wir würden nun gerne wissen: kannst du dem Schreiber sagen, an welche Regel er hätte denken müssen, um den Fehler zu vermeiden?
Schreib bitte auf Blatt 2 für jeden Fehler die entsprechende Sprachregel so auf, wie sie Dir einfällt.
Setze den Buchstaben "N" ein, wenn Du keine Regel weißt.
Als nächstes bitten wir Dich aufzuschreiben, wie Deiner Meinung nach die unterstrichene Stelle richtig heißen müßte. Du brauchst nur die fehlerhafte Stelle zu verbessern und mußt nicht den ganzen Satz abschreiben.
Schließlich bitten wir Dich noch, auf Blatt 2 das Kästchen oben auszufüllen. Herzlichen Dank!

The following sentences are taken from a letter of a German pupil to an English pen-friend:

1. As you know lives my aunt on a farm.
2. I spent last Easter with my aunt. Most of the time I've played tennis.
3. If you come to Munich next year, I show you the new sports centre.
4. It takes not very long to get there.
5. There is a farm near us. Do you like to ride horses?
6. If you do, there'll be no problem, because I know the farmer for a long time.
7. Of course, we won't have to pay something for the ride.
8. Have I told you that my brother has got a new car? He drives more careful now than before.

The following sentences are taken from a statement given by a German pupil who saw a man steal a radio in a shop in London:

9. About half an hour ago a man was coming into the shop.
10. He had a very big nose and smoked a cigarette.
11. While the shop-keeper was fetching a radio from the backroom, the man, which was a thief, snatched a little cassette-recorder from the counter and ran out of the shop.
12. Outside he was arrested by an policeman.

Blatt 2

Zutreffendes bitte einkreisen!

Schulart: HS RS Gym
Jahrgangsstufe: 9 [✓ 10]
Geschlecht: männlich weiblich
letzte Zeugnisnote: ....

Satz-Nr.	REGEL Formuliere hier die Regel soweit Du kannst; ansonsten "N"	BERICHTIGUNG Berichtige hier den fehlerhaften Satzteil:
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

Appendix G: Letter Writing Test Material

This is a letter from an English girl, Linda, to her German pen-friend. Imagine that you are Stephan(ie) replying to the letter. Try to answer all the points that Linda raises in her letter.

Name:...............................

Vorname:......... ....

Manchester, 12th April, 1989

Dear Stephan(ie),

Thanks for your last letter, which you wrote just before you went to spend Easter with your aunt. Did you have a good time?

Aren't you lucky - going with your parents to Italy this summer! We were in Florence and Rome two years ago and had a lovely time. Are you going there? Perhaps I can give you some tips on where to eat and what to see.

Your Italian trip doesn't mean you won't be coming to stay with us in England, does it? I am so looking forward to showing you all the sights and introducing you to all my friends. Is there anything you would really like to do or anywhere you've always wanted to go? Do tell me and we'll try to arrange it. By the way, I shall still be at school for the first week of your stay. Do you want to come with me?

Talking of school, how is your new English teacher? Is he (or perhaps it's a she this time) as nice as the one I met last year?

Must close now. Do write soon, won't you, and tell me you are still coming. Bye for now.

Love,
Linda

Appendix H: PGT-Results of All Testees and All Tenses

student production →	1	2	3	4	5	31	32	33	34	35	62	63	64	65	66
items ↓															
1	F	F		F						F	F	F		F	F
2	F	F	F	F	F		F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
3															
4										F		F	F	F	
5															
6		F		F				F		F	F	F		F	F
7						F				F			F		
8														F	
9		F				F	F		F			F	F		
10															
11															
12									F	F				F	F
13	F	F	F	F	F	F	F					F	F	F	
14											F				
15															
16															
17															
18															
19															
20	F	F	F	F			F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

F = false answer
✓ = correct answer

colored boxes = future tense items
white boxes = other tense items

Appendix K: Incorrect and Correct Use of five FT-Items in PGT Per Testee

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Key

	CORRECT	INCORRECT
item 6: general "will" future:	7x =18.9%	8x= 21.1%
item 9: "will" in the conditional I pattern	9x = 24.3%	6x = 23.7%
item 13: Present Tense with future meaning	5x = 35.1%	10x = 26.3%
item 14: "will" future after "I think"	14x = 37.8%	1x = 2.6%
item 20: no "will" future in subordinate	clause 2x = 5.4%	13x = 34.2%

STUDENT	CORRECT FUTURE TENSE	INCORRECT FUTURE TENSE
1	3 (items 6, 9, 24)	2 (items 13, 20)
2	1 (item 14)	4 (items 6, 9, 13, 20)
3	3 (items 6, 9,14)	2 (items 13, 20)
4	2 (items 9, 14)	3 (items 6, 13, 20)
5	4 (items 6, 9, 14, 20)	1 (item 13)
31	3 (items 6, 14, 20)	2 (items 9, 13)
32	2 (items 6, 14)	3 (items 9, 13, 20)
33	3 (items 6, 13, 14)	2 (items 6, 20)
34	3 (items 6, 13,14)	2 (items 9, 20)
35	3 (items 9, 13,14)	2 (items 6, 20)
62	2 (items 9, 13)	3 (items 6, 14, 20)
63	1 (item 14)	4 (items 6, 9, 13, 20)
64	2 (items 6, 14)	3 (items 9, 13, 20)
65	2 (items 9, 14)	3 (items 6, 13, 20)
66	3 (items 9, 13, 14)	2 (items 6, 20)
total	37 correct	38 correct
average	7.4 correct 49.3% of all FTs (100% 75 FT-points)	7.6 incorrect 50.3% of all FTs (100% 75 FT-points)

Appendix L: Passive Grammar Test: Individual Results of FT-Performance Compared to OT- Performance Results

students	of a total of 5 future tenses = 100%		of a total of 6 "other tenses" = 100%	
	used correctly	**used incorrectly**	**used correctly**	**used incorrectly**
1	3 : will fut. if-pattern, "will" after "think" 60%	2 item 13, 20 40%	4: item 4, 7, 8, 12 66.7 %	2 :item 1, 2 33. 3 %
2	1 item 14 20%	4 item 6, 9,13 ,20 80%	4 item 4, 7, 8 ,12 66.7 %	2 item 1, 2 33. 3 %
3	3 item 6 ,9 .14 60%	2 item 13 ,20 40%	5 item 1 ,4 7, 8 ,12 83. 3%	1 item 2 16.7 %
4	2 item 9, 14 40%	3 item 6,13,20 60%	5 item 1 ,4 7, 8 ,12. 83.3 %	1 item 2 16.7 %
5	4 item 6, 9, 14, 20 80 %	1 item 13 20%	4 item 4,7, 8 ,12 66. 7%	2 item 1, 2 33.3 %
31	3 item 6, 14, 20 60%	2 item 9, 13, 40%	5 item 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, 83.3 %	1 item 7, 16. 7%

32	2 item 6,14 40%	3 item 9, 13, 20 60%	5 item 1, 4, 7, 8, 12 83.3%	1 item 2. 16. 7%
33	3 item 9, 13, 14 60%	2 item 6, 20 40%	5 item 1, 4, 7, 8, 12 83.3 %	1 item 2. 16.7 %
34	3 item 6, 13, 14 60%	2 item 9, 20 40%	4 item 1, 4 7, 8. 66.7 %	2 item 2 ,12 33.3 %
35	3 item 9, 13, 14 60%	2 item 6, 20 40%	3 item 8, 7, 12 50%	3 item 1, 2, 4 50%
62	2 item 9 ,13 40%	3 item 6, 14,20 60%	4 item 4, 7, 8, 12 66.7 %	2 item 1, 2. 33.3 %
63	1 item 14 20%	4 item 6, 9 , 13 , 20 80%	3 item 7, 8, 12 50%	3 item 1, 2, 4. 50%
64	2 item 6, 14. 40%	3 item 9, 13, 20 60%	3 item 1, 8 12 50%	3 item 2, 4, 7 50%
65	2 item 9, 14 40%	3 item 6, 13, 20 60%	3 item 7, 8, 12 50%	3 item 1, 2, 4. 50%
66	3 item 9, 13, 14. 60%	2 item 6, 20 40%	4 item 4, 12. 7, 8 66.7%	2 item 1, 2. 33. 3 %

Appendix M: Results of the Use of the Conditional I "if- pattern" in the IET

R + = rule correct

R - = rule incorrect (explanation not even tried, inappropriate explanation)

C + = error correction correct

C - = error correction wrong

TESTEE NUMBER	RESULTS	SCHOOL
1	R -/ C+	A
2	R -/ C+	A
3	R -/ C+	A
4	R -/ C+	A
5	R +/ C+	A
31	R -/ C+	B
32	R +/ C+	B
33	R +/ C+	B
34	R +/ C+	B
35	R +/ C+	B
62	R +/ C+	C
63	R +/ C+	C
64	R +/ C+	C
65	R -/ C+	C
66	R +/ C+	C

Appendix N: IET-Results of all Testees and all Questions

---

student production →	1	2	3	4	5	31	32	33	34	35	62	63	64	65	66
items↓															
1	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	NN	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+
[illegible]	R-C+	R+C-	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C-	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	NC-	R-C+	R+C+
3	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+
4	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	NC+	NC+	R+C-	NN	R+C+	NC+	R-C+	R-C+
5	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+	NC+	R+C+	R-C+
6	R+C-	NC-	R-C-	NC-	R-C-	R-C-	R-C-	R+C+	R-C-	R-C-	NN	R+C+	NN	R+C+	R+C+
7	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	NC+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+
8	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	NC+	R-C+	R+C+
9	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R-C+	NC+	R-C+	NC+	R-C+	R-C+
10	R+C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R-C+	R+C+	R+C+	NC+	R+C+	R-C+	NN	R+C+	NC+	NC+	NC-
11	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	NC+	R+C+	R-C+
12	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+	R+C+

R+ = correct rule
R- = incorrect rule
C+ = proper correction
C- = improper correction

▬ color = future tense item
color = other tense item

Appendix O: Future Tense Use in the Letter Writing Test

	how often used out of all fut. tenses used	*in which structure*	*used correctly*	*other fut. tenses used correctly*	*other fut. tenses used incorrectly*
1	3 of 3 = 100%	item 6 : will + verb inf., if pattern	3 x =100%	0	0
2	1 of 4 = 25%	item 6	1 x =100%	2 (going to)	1 (going to)
3	4 of 6 = 66.7%	item 6,"will" after "think"	4 x =100%	0	2 (pres.tense going to)
4	1 of 3 = 33.3 %	item 6	1 x =100%	2 (pres. cont)	0
5	3 of 5 = 60%	item 6	2 x =100%	2 (going to)	0
31	1 of 3 = 33.3%	item 6, if-pattern	1 x =100%	2 (pres. cont.)	0
32	4 of 6 = 66.6%	item 6	4 x =100%	1 (pres. cont)	1 (pres.cont.)
33	7 of 8 = 87.5%	item 6, no fut. in subord. clause. "will" after "think". if- pattern	7x =100%	1 (pres. tense)	0
34	4 of 6 = 66.6%	item 6, if-pattern (wrong)	3x =75%	1 (pres.cont. going to)	0
35	3 of 6 = 50 %	item 6, "will" after "think", no fut. in subord. clause	3 x =100%	1 (pres.cont.)	2 (pres.cont.)
62	2 of 2 = 100%	item 6	2x =100%	0	0
63	3 of 5 = 60%	item 6, if-pattern	3x =100%	2 (pres. cont.)	0
64	2 of 2 = 100%	item 6	2x =100%	0	0
65	0 of 0 = 0%	-	0%	0	0
66	3 of 5 = 60%	item 6	3x =100%	2 (pres. tense)	0

Appendix P: Results of Correct Use of the Use of Future Tense in the LWT

letters/total no of words	total no of future tenses	future tenses used correctly	future tenses used incorrectly	no of other tenses used	other tenses used correctly	other tenses used incorrectly	total no of tenses	total no correct	total no incorrect
1 231 w	3	3	0	19	18	1	24	21	1
2 153 w	4	3	1	16	15	1	20	18	2
3 192 w	6	4	2	25	23	2	31	27	4
4 188 w	3	3	0	21	20	1	24	23	1
5 171 w	5	5	0	18	16	2	23	21	2
31 265 w	3	3	0	25	25	0	28	28	0
32 235 w	6	5	1	24	23	1	30	28	2
33 328 w	8	8	0	31	31	0	39	39	0
34 208 w	6	5	1	17	17	0	23	22	1
35 199 w	6	4	2	23	21	2	29	25	4
62 201 w	2	2	0	11	10	1	13	3	1
63 150 w	5	5	0	19	19	0	24	24	0
64 210 w	2	2	0	12	11	1	14	13	1
65 186 w	0	0	0	14	13	1	14	13	1
66 252 w	5	5	0	6	6	0	11	11	0

Appendix Q: Comparison of Quantity of FT and OT Use in the LWT

100% all tenses used per testee

Testees	**FTs used**	**OTs used**
1	13.6%	86.4%
2	20%	80%
3	22.2%	77.8%
4	13%	87%
5	23.8%	76.2%
31	10.7%	89.3%
32	21.4%	78.6%
33	20.5%	79.5%
34	27.3%	72.7%
35	24%	76%
62	66.7%	33.3%
63	20.8%	79.2%
64	15.4%	84.6%
65	0%	100%
66	45.5%	54.5%

Appendix R: Comparison of PGT-Results and LWT-Results

Code:
item 6 = will + verb infinitive = **WI**
item 9 = "will" in Conditional I "if pattern" = **IF**
item 13 = simple present with future meaning = **PR**
item 14 = "will after "I think"= **WT**
item 20 = no future in subordinate clause = **SO**

testees	**LWT**	**LWT**	**PGT**	**PGT**
	tenses used correctly	tenses used incorrectly	tenses used correctly	tenses used incorrectly
1	WI,IF	-	WI, IF, WT	PR, SO
2	**WI**	-	WT	**WI**, IF, PR, SO
3	WI, WT	PR	WI, IF, WT	PR, SO
4	**WI**	-	IF, WT	**WI**, PR, SO
5	WI	-	WI, WO, WT, IF	PR
31	WI, **IF**	-	WI,WT, SO	**IF**, PR
32	WI	-	WI,WT	IF, PR, SO
33	**WI, SO,** WT, IF, PR	-	IF, PR, WT	**WI, SO**
34	WI	IF	WI, WT, PR	SO, IF
35	**WI,** WT, SO, PR,	-	IF, PR, WT	**WI,** SO
62	**WI**	-	PR, IF	**WI,** SO, WT
63	**WI, IF**	-	WT	**WI, IF,** PR, SO
64	WI	-	WT	WI, IF, PR, SO
65	-	-	WT, IF	WI, SO, PR
66	**WI,** PR	-	IF, PR, WT	**WI,** SO

Annotations

1 Despite the domination of grammar based approaches from the 17th century to the present, there were also voices which demanded a more natural approach to language teaching, like for instance **Francois Gouin** who advocated the **series method** as a result of his own inability to succeed in learning a foreign language with the grammar based method. According to this now method, originally used by psychological methodologists, activities applied varied with a series of other related activities (In: Krashen/ Terrell 1983: 9). Other teaching styles - today referred to as "traditional methods"- are the **psychological, phonetic** (Vietor) or the **direct method** (used at Berlitz Schools, Goethe Institute). (Krashen/Terrell 1983: 10p). As to reasons for formal grammar translation method, see: Mallison (1957:8p)

2 For further details see Krashen (1978: 127pp), Omaggio (1986: 54p)

3 Mainly Great Britain and the United States to begin with (Amtsblatt 1992:97pp)

4 For the discussion of the notion of grammar see: Garrett (1986: 134pp)

5 For the difference between lapses, mistakes and errors see Green/Hecht (1984: 4)

6 Personal conversation Dießen, Jan. 30, 1993.

7 For further details on research results of previous phases within the"learner language project" see:

Green, P. S., K. H., Hecht, Implicit and Explicit Grammar: An Empirical Study, in: Applied Linguistics, Vol. 13, No. 2 (1992): 168-184.

Green, P. S., K. H. Hecht, Reliability in the Assessment of Written Communicative Skills. in: Finlance (The Finnish Journal of Language Learning and Language Teaching, Language Center for Finnish Universities), 3 (1984): 1-23.

Hecht, K.- H., Grammatikwissen unserer Schüler: Gefühls- oder regelgeleitet?, in: Praxis 28 (1992): 151-162.

Hecht, K.- H., Grammatische Kompetenz und Performanz, in: Die neueren Sprachen 6 (1989): 573-59O.

Hecht, K.- H., P. S. Green, *Fehler: leicht - mittel - schwer? Zum Problem der Fehlergewichtung und des Bewertens der interpersonellen und* *referentiellen Funktionen der Sprache*, in: Die neueren Sprachen 3 (1989): 81-87.

Hecht, K.- H., P. S. Green, *Kommunikative Wirksamkeit von Schülerbriefen ein Produkt von Sprachrichtigkeit ?*, in: Englisch 1 (1988): 1- 8.

Hecht, K.- H, *Forschungsvorhaben. Bericht über das Forschungsprojekt* "Lernersprache", in: Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachenforschung 2 (1991): 119-126.

Hecht, K.-H., Hadden, B, *Declaratives und prozedurales Grammatikwissen bei Schülern des Gymnasiums mit Englisch als Zielsprache*, in: Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachen-forschung, Vol. 3, 1 (1992): 31-57.

8 Coseriu (1988: 10-13) states that in 1817 the first explicit distinction between language in theory (the system) and in practice (oral performance) was made by **Friedrich Hegel. Wilhelm von Humboldt** followed with another theory of distinction in 1836. For further details refer to:

Hegel, G. W. F., *Enzyklopädie der philosophischen Wissenschaften im Grundriß* § 380 (1817).

Humboldt, W. v., *Über die Verschiedenheit des menschlichen Sprachbaues und ihren Einfluss auf die geistige Entwicklung des Menschengeschlechts,* postum 1836.

9 For details of his theory see: **Coseriu,** E.. Determination y entorno, In: Romanistisches Jahrbuch 7 (1955: 29-54), and Coseriu, E., (1988: 233 pp). Due to lack of space Coseriu's approach cannot be focused on in more detail.

10 According to Eugenio Coseriu, Saussure's and Chomsky's dichotomies differ in terminology and content. For further details see: Coserlu (1988): 3pp/188.

11 Later the LAD was referred to in his concept of the "universal grammar".

12 See also Dell Hymes et.al. (Hymes 1972: 272)

13 Here acquisition is not to be understood in Krashen's terms as "unconsciously acquired knowledge." It refers to the general conscious or un/subconscious process of acquiring knowledge in a **first language** (L1, mother tongue), **second language** (L2, other language than mother tongue, acquired in a foreign language environment; bilingualism can be the result of such a learning process) or **foreign language** (FL, the language acquired in mother tongue environment). For more detailed dlfferenciation see Hüllen (1987: 280).

14 J. L. **Austin'** s theoretical work How to Do Things With Words of 1962 and his speech act theory, later on further developed by J. R. **Searle** (1969), served as a theoretical basis for the emergence of sociolinguistics. What Austin had divided into the **phatic and phonetic act.** Searle referred to as the **locutionary act**. Searle' s second major element of a speech act is designed as the **propositional act** and relates to the way in which the content of an utterance is expressed in reference to the situational context surrounding the communication partners. How this content is expected to be understood by the recipient and which function the utterance has, is expressed in the third element, the **illocutionary act.** If the utterance has, in fact, been understood as intended, the **perlocutionary act** overlaps with the **illocutionary act** (Bußmann 1983: 497 pp).

15 As in Canale/Swain's construct, *communicative competence* is often divided into four categories: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Canale/ Swain 1980a:1 pp.). Since communicative competence is seen as achieved by interaction of grammatical knowledge and knowledge about the rules of language in application, there seems to be some similarity between their concept and Chomsky's.

16 Feat and Jasper (1985: 171 pp.) define communicative competence as a combination of **declarative communicative knowledge** and **procedural communicative knowledge.** Some components of **declarative knowledge** are:

- paralinguistic and extralinguistic means of communication (i.e. gesture, mime),
- linguistic means of communication (e.g. knowledge about rules belonging to leis, phonology, orthography, morphology. syntax of the language)
- pragmatic and discourse knowledge (e.g. knowledge of how to express speech acts appropriately socio - interactional knowledge (e.g. social rules for interacting in various social situations)

Some subcomponents of **procedural knowledge** are:

- reception of procedures production procedures conversational procedures communication strategies
- learning procedures

17 From this perspective, his assumption of the biological roots of competence, manifested in the universal LAD finds support even though its existence has never been scientifically proved.

18 See the title of Skinner's book: Verbal Behavior of 1957.

19 As to the question of **consciousness** and **language,** Saussure saw the language system langue as "subconscious knowledge" (Coseriu 1988: 188). This view resembles Coseriu's conception in general (1988:197). Chomsky's concept of competence as not consciously controlled. "intuitive knowledge" is apparently taken from E. Sapir (Coseriu 1988:195). In chapter 2. 2. on language learning theory, the issue consciousness will be raised once more.

20 Occasionally, cognitive psychologists also mention a third knowledge type involved in the memorization process. It has been labeled **metacognitive knowledge.** Since it is not of major importance within the context of this paper, it cannot be focused on. For details see: (Tönshoff 1990: 27 pp.) Glover et.al. use a different terminology for their three types of knowledge. They speak of **domain specific, general and strategic knowledge.** For details see (Glover et. al. 1990: 14 pp./28).

Moreover, Möhle/Raupach criticize Anderson's assumption that all learning procedures are based on declarative knowledge which gradually develops into procedural knowledge, because it implies that L1 acquisition equals FL acquisition. This, however, cannot be true, because L 1 acquisition is naturally not based on rule learning but on implicit acquisition of correct language structures. Thus, L1 language is normally presented as procedural knowledge. It is referred to as a native speaker's "feel" for language, which excludes knowing the explicit rule underlying the utterance. Thus, Anderson's assumption only seems to account for the conscious acquisition of a FL or L2. (Möhle/Raupach 1989: 200p)

21 **Melenk** (1977: 129) emphasizes that the pragmalinguistic term 'speech act' has not yet established itself in didactics clearly enough. In general, however, he considers the concept of the speech act theory transferable to the field of didactics. **Kasper** (1981: 2p) also stresses that contrary to common beliefs, the speech act theory is not the only source contributing to the rise of pragmadidactics as a general language teaching approach. For further criticism on the pragmadidactic concept see Kasper (1981: 6 pp) and **Müller** (1977). **Oller and Richards** (1973) provide teachers with advice for the application of pragmalinguistic aspects in the foreign language classroom.

22 Details see Stang 1990 and Weinrich (1985: 227/8)

23 The five criteria proposed by Robert Lado in 1964 for the **Audio Lingual or American Method** in his book Language Teaching a Scientific Approach are summarized in Chastain 1976. They are also referred to in Krashen (1978: 129 pp/ 1329; Krashen/Terrell (1983:13 pp)

24 ***Communicative Language Learning*:**

Curran transferred techniques from psychological counseling to the teaching method whereby the teacher functions as "counselor'. He takes on a passive role. The students are provided with the language material presented on tapes. The teacher corrects errors on an individual basis, for instance by whispering a correction into the student's ear. For further details refer to: Omaggio (1986: 79 PP).

25 ***Suggestopedia:***

With this method, mechanistic practice as is typical for the Audio Visual Method is avoided. The students work with culturally based dialogues. Explanations of grammatical structures are provided. Students are taught about four hours a day for a whole month. Each section is divided into 3 sections:

- the **review** with traditional conversation and games; no pattern drill; no language lab,
- the **presentation** consisting of the introduction of 4- 10 page dialogues read in translation with grammar explanations, and
- the **dialog reading phase**. This third part is subdivided into two sections. First the dialogue is read by the teacher. The students follow the text while doing **Yoga-breathing** and repeating mentally the absorbed phase. Second, in the **concert phase** students absorb language material at an unconscious level by listening to the teacher reading the dialog again but this time into the rhythm of Baroque Music.

(Krashen 1978: 144 pp, Omaggio 1986: 84 pp)

26 ***Silent Way:***

This technique avoids rote memorization by encouraging the students to draw from all sources of knowledge they already have access to. The teacher rarely speaks and hardly corrects the students intending to let them figure out patterns and word meanings in the foreign language themselves and to encourage the development of their own feeling for the language. The students hear only the target language. (further details Omaggio 1986: 81 pp)

27 ***Total Physical Response:***

Asher's main principles are the following: In order to develop understanding of the language before speaking it, he favorizes a kinesthetic-sensory teaching and learning system. The students actively move their bodies according to the teacher's commands in the foreign language, in the beginning by repeating the teacher's movements accompanying the spoken language, later on by doing them alone and then, after having internalized the language feature, using the language features on their own. The premise is to speak only if they feel ready for it. Each variation of a routine is different to avoid memorization of a fixed sequence. All four skills are paid attention to in this approach and Asher claims that most of the grammatical features can be taught that way (Omaggio 1986:72 pp, Krashen 1978: 140 pp).

28 ***Natural Approach:***

The main principle according to Tracy Terrell is the following:

What is important is not grammatical perfection but communicative competence, particularly at the beginners level. When grammar is dealt with, it is not important to deliver rules as such, but to modify and improve students' grammar performance step by step. All this is to be presented without the students becoming conscious of the learning process. On the whole, any kind of grammar teaching should be avoided, because teacher and students are almost automatically forced to focus on form (Krashen 1978:115). Knowledge of form (grammar), however, can never become acquired knowledge which is necessary for appropriate language performance. Thus, according to this concept, it has to be guaranteed that the students acquire language unconsciously instead of learning consciously. In addition, error correction is also not considered helpful, because it is embarrassing and thus lowers the student's motivation to acquire language. The learners are allowed to respond in L1 or L 2 (Krashen/Terrell 1983: 330 pp; Krashen 1978: 138; Omaggio 1986: 76 pp). For details on the *Monitor Theory* of language acquisition, which this approach is based on, see chapter on the non-interface position.

29 See also Bloor (1986:157)

30 According to these criteria a functional syllabus was constructed paying regard to all four language skills. I myself instructed American university students for one year according to proficiency guidelines under strict supervision of American teaching methodologist Robert Di Donato at Miami University, Oxford,Ohio. He is a very active defender of the *communicative proficiency approach.*

In contrast to the common teaching practice at Bavarian Gymnasien, we emphasized the importance of oral performance in communicative settings to the extent that oral exams were given twice a semester. This way our students considered oral practice and participation in class really important. The students' focus shifted from believing themselves to be good students of German only if they could prove to have very good knowledge of German grammar and its terminology. Altogether, grammatical structure-and vocabulary training as well as the tests themselves always had to have a meaningful context for the students. As part of the attempt to achieve *communicative competence*, it was also essential to gain cultural information about the foreign country. This was tested in our exams as well. The beginners were allowed to write their cultural knowledge down in English, though.

31 For further publications concerning their project see annotation 7.

32 This conclusion concurs with Coseriu's and Hymes' criticism of Chomsky's dichotomy of competence and performance. (Hymes 1972;272), Coseriu (1988: 52/54 p)

33 Details and criticism in: Spolsky (1979: 251 pp).

34 Corder refers to the second understanding of **interlanguage** as" a learner's built in syllabus" (Ellis 1986: 47).

Further information about the interlanguage hypothesis: see: Faerch/Kasper (1983) and (1989). In the latter article the authors differentiate between three kinds of cognitive modes of language transfer form L 1 to the target language in a language production procedure, which can be characteristic for interlanguage stages: the **strategic transfer,** assuming that the learners' focal attention is on the planning of a problem, the **subsidiary transfer,** when the focal attention is neither on a production problem nor on plan, and **automatic transfer,** when the production is highly automatized (Fearch/Kasper 1989: 174 pp). **Transfer** is defined as a psycholinguistic prodedure which activates knowledge in one cognitive area' for utilization in another "area"(Faerch~Kasper 1989:173). In the case of interlanguage these areas refer to L 1 and Fl or L2. In regard to the question of transfer of grammatical competence to grammatically correct performance in the FL, the two areas could thus be considered "grammatical competence" (implicit/explicit knowledge) and "grammatical performance".

35 Ellis (1986) differentiates between six models of Second Language Acquisition: (1) the **Accommodation Model,** (2) the **Discourse Model,** (3) the **Monitor Model,** (4) the **Variable Competence Model,** (5) the **Universal Hypothesis,** (6) the **Neurofunctional Model.** In this paper only (3), (4) will find direct consideration. (1) is indirectly referred to.

36 A full account of the Monitor Model is available in Krashen 1987; Krashen 1981; Krashen / Terrell 1983)

37 Rubin (1981: 122) also refers to a *Monitor.* He stresses that his monitor concept includes sociolinguistic knowledge and learning of communicative competence, both of which he misses in Krashen's concept.

As to these three conditions, in the letter writing test the monitor as a control device for errors should not be available, because the focus is on meaning and not on form.

38 For Corder

> ...input is 'what goes in' not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more properly his intake. This may well be determined by the characteristics of his language acquisition mechanism... (Corder 1967: 165)

And Schmidt (1990: 139) proposes that "input is that part of the input that the learner notices," thus correlating input with consciousness, an aspect that Corder does not specifically point out.

39 Also supportive of Krashen's approach are: Houck and Robertson. For details see: Houck/Robertson/ Krashen (1978)

40 Details on the Krashen/Mc Laughlin debate see: Mc Laughlin (1990:619 pp)

41 The natural order hypothesis is only based on examples from morphology and syntax. Gregg (1984: 85) claims that this hypothesis only works for these categories. Therefore, it is not strong enough to be convincing.

42 Concerning the question of Language learning and consciousness, refer also to: Chafe,W., *Language and Consciousness*, in: Language 50 (1974): 111.

43 For further criticism see: **Horner** (1987), **Mc Laughlin** (1987: 19 -58). **Digeser** (1978: 453 -457), **Freudenstein** (1986: 1-8), **Dunlop** (1985: 2p), **Kasper** (1986: 33 pp), **Krahnke** (1985: 592-603), **Ellis** (1986: 265 p), **Taylor** (1984: 97-105), **Gregg** (1984: 8I pp).

44 Tönshoff (1990: 5l) is right in criticizing Bialystok' s collocation of the more analyzed and cognitively controlled a language production is, the more negative it is and vice versa (Bialystok 1982:198). I do not see either why this should be so. For a very talkative but "sloppy" type of learner to control his/her utterance a little bit, might be a positive move.

45 Even though it is clear in this context that her main point of interest was not to characterize types of learners, I would like to point out that it is risky to define learner types according to just two categories. The majority of our learners might not fit this construct, but rather represent a mixture of various other factors rather than "analyzed" and "automatic" knowledge.

46 In Bialystok's model (Table 8), for instance, this cognitive training leads towards a student's type C knowledge and in Tarone's model to the development of the learner's careful style.

47 The previous projects focused on the following aspects and were partly conducted in cooperation with Peter Green at the University of York, England:
Project I documented and analyzed interactional written language performance of the Gymnasium Mittelstufe. of 9th and 10th grade 'Realschule' and of 9th grade Hauptschule (letter writing), **whereas project II** focused on oral narrative performability of competence (picture story oral), written narrative competence (picture story written) and oral competence in dialog situations (telephone conversation) of 9th and 10th graders at the Gymnasium. **Project III** was an extension of project II in as much as the same tasks were given to lower and upper level students at the Gymnasium to gather data for a longitudinal study. Instead of eliciting students' communicative performance as in the three previous projects, **Project IV** analyzed students' "code competence" by conducting grammar tests grammar tests and style tests. **Project V** represented an international cross-sectional study, comparing code competence and communicative competence in English as a foreign language of German, French, Swedish, Italian and Hungarian students. For further information see Hecht (1991: 119-126).

48 The following chart indicates from which schools the student productions derived.

Numbers of student productions	**School**
1, 2, 3, 4 and 5	= **school A**
31, 32, 33, 34 and 35	= **school B**
62, 63, 64, 65 and 66	= **School C**

49 Most students also "signed' their tests with fantasy names, making personal connections impossible.

50 Exam types other than those analyzed here to test competence and performance in a foreign language have been collected by Professor **Peter Doye** at the University of Braunschweig in his book Typologie der Testaufgaben für den Englischunterricht, München (1986). The tests are categorized according to function of tasks (reading, Listening, writing, speaking) or form of tasks (gap filling, sentence writing, text writing based on picture stories et.c.)
Since the restrictions of this paper does not allow me to concentrate further on the issue of test design and administration, the following two works may serve as representative reference:

J. B. Carroll and P. J. **Hall** (1985) offer useful information about the design of communicative performance tests. See for details: thoughts on communicative testing: (131 -137), design of such tests (11- 17), oral performance tests: (41-56) and administration (57-66). See also **Cohen,** A. H., Testing Ability in the Classroom, Rowely MA (1980)

51 According to Corder (1979: 259), an **error** is to be differentiated from a **mistake** in as much as the latter qualifies as a falsity conflicting with performance (register, style) deriving from a non-conforming relation of language and a situation (acceptability/appropriacy). This kind of failure can also be heard from native speakers, whereas an error is considered typical for a non-native speaker. For further discussion of this matter, see **Green/Hecht** (1984: 4), **Hecht/Green** (1983: 21 pp) and **Rossipal** (1973: 60pp). **Hammarberg** (1973: 29 pp.) refers to error analysis as special kind of "therapy." Furthermore, **Enkvist** (1973: 19 pp) criticizes the goal-oriented view on errors and error correction, since the error is often not seen in the context of situation (appropriateness), but only in relation to grammatical correctness. A typical example for such a perspective would be a teacher who corrects a student, because s/he has only answered with one word instead of producing an entire sentence. This one-word reply would have been an appropriate answer in a natural communicative situation, however. Moreover, constant error correction can inhibit a learner's spontaneity in communicative situations.
See also: Frombin, V. A. (ed.). Errors in Linguistic Performance, New York Academia Press, New York (1980)

52 Indicating who considered a form incorrect or inappropriate, these charts provide evidence for the fact that not even native speakers can always agree on what is a correct or incorrect, appropriate or inappropriate performance in a given context (also Hecht/Green 1983: 25).

53 A discussion of the problematic issue of grading errors as severe, mediocre, or light is offered by professor Hecht and Green in the following article:
Hecht, K. H., P. S. Green, *Fehler: leicht - mittel - schwer? Zum Problem der Fehlergewichtung und des Bewertens der interpersonellen und referentiellen Funktionen der Sprache*. in: Die neueren Sprachen 3 (1989 b): 81- 87.

54 For further reading on the function of error analysis see:
Hulstjin, J., Hulstjin, W., Grammatical Errors as a Function of Processing Constraints and Explicit Knowledge, in: Language Learning 34 (1984): 23 -43.

55 Hecht and Green's previous experiences with this test type have supported their assumption that the PGT offers reliable information about the students' cognitive grammar.
See: Hecht/Green (1989a): 575.

56 See also Hecht/Green (1989a): 576

57 The effectiveness of using a grammar of signal words has been researched by Werner Kieweg.
See: Kieweg, W., Die Signalwortgrammatik - funktioniert sie wirklich ?, in: Pädagogische Welt 2 (1988): 81- 83. Concerning the use of a 'rule on thumb", see also: Bergman, R. A., Rule of Grammar or Rule of Thumb, in: IRLA 17 (1979): 279.

58 According to Hecht, the CTs provide information about **code competence,** whereas the PT reveals information about a student's **communicative competence** (Hecht/Waas 1984: 14p).

59 These bold capital letters indicate that the form has to be alternated according to numbers of the verb.

60 A contrastive look at this English future tense feature and its German equivalent provides the following information:

Future Progressive: will/shall + be+ verb-ing	**present tense + gerade: werden + verb + gerade**
- limited duration of action in future picturing action in process, certain: examples: *I will be seeing you tonight.* *Tomorrow at this time I will be giving my report.*	examples: *Ich seh' dich dann (kurz) heute abend.* *Morgen um diese Zeit werde ich gerade mein Referat halten/ halte ich gerade mein Referat.*

61 This chart and the following one on the future tense systems of both languages contain information taken from the English grammar reference books Quirk/Greenbaum (1985: 179-218), Lamprecht (1980: 227-230/237), Ungerer (1984: 138-143), Close (in: Bald 1988: 51-66), Schrampfer-Azar (1981: 100 -120), as well as the German grammar books Helbig/Buscha (1986: 154-156) and DUDEN (1984: § 224-§ 244) .
A general discussion of the English tense system can be found in Henryk Kaluza, Time and Tense in English, in: IRAL, Vol. 17, 2 (1979): 139-143. Eight tenses, of which the Future Tense is one, are the basis for a total number of 32 forms in the English indicative mood.

62 Welte and Johnston also refer to five basic structures as the major ways to express future events: "will" future, future progressive, present tense, present progressive and "going to" future (Welte/Johnston 1991: 258).

63 For other error types see Carroll (1968: 114p), Nellinger (1977: 13pp).

64 This demarcation line is considered to be least arbitrary, because it seems to be a fairly realistic assumption considering Bavarian school reality.

65 These abbreviations will be used from now on to describe the answers given in the IET.
R+ = rule provided correctly
R- = rule provided incorrectly
C+ = correction task completed correctly
C- = correction task completed incorrectly

66 Since the two tense categories considered in this investigation will occur very often by name, the following abbreviations will be used for convenience for the following descriptions:
FT = **future tense** : FTs =future tenses; OT = **other tense,** all but the future tenses;
OTs = other tenses but the future tenses.

67 These results did not show any major significance in a statistical test (Mann-Whittney), thus indicating that the outcome would most likely be different with a different set of participants. More tests would have to be analyzed according to these criteria to find out if the results stated here represent a significant pattern.

68 Since a discussion of the reasons for the errors not of major interest in this investigation, the following information is provided only on the periphery. It presents an aspect for further analysis on a larger scale in the future.

Table 20: *Error cause types*

	SCHOOL A	**SCHOOL B**	**SCHOOL C**
number of errors	12	11	15
overgeneralization 13x = 34.2%	3x = 25%	5x = 45.5%	5x = 33.3%
Ranschburg Phenomenon 22x = 57.9%	9x = 75%	6x = 54.5%	7x = 46.7%
other 3x = 7.9%	-	-	3x = 20%
100% figures	100% = 12	100% = 11	100% = 15

To begin with, this table shows that obviously at all schools the lack difference between the mother tongue FT-structure and the FL- structure ore often caused a wrong choice (Ranschburg phenomenon) than overgenerlization. Even school B, with its overall best performance in the PGT, showed this tendency. Also, the weaker a school performed the more often overgeneralization led an erroneous choice. Apparently, the lesser the testees' recognition knowledge, the more likely it is that known grammatical patterns are stressed. Moreover, the error cause categories listed seem to cover almost all reasons for errors with regard to the FT structures. The following facts served as a basis for this investigation:

Table 21: *Error types and student productions per item*

types of errors made by testee	**item**	**student production**
overgeneralization of FL feature "present continuous" 12 testees = 80%	6	2, 33, 65, 66
	9	31, 32, 34, 63, 64
	13	2
	14	62
	20	3, 35
positive transfer avoided = Ranschburg Phenomenon 14 testees = 93.3 %	20	1,,2,,3,,4, 32, 33, 34, 35, 63, 64, 65, 66 (62 no answer at all)
	13	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 31, 32, 63, 64, 65

69 Without any information about the actual classroom teaching practices, no further comments can be made. In my opinion, only much more content and language practice oriented language training could change these results (60% R+C+) towards a higher degree of procedural knowledge performers (R-C+).

70 Worthwhile scrutinizing further in the OT- section is the following observation, illustrated in Table 21(annotation 69).
Whereas the explanation of Simple Past following the signal adverbial "ago" for an activity without any connection to the present at a specific time in the past was most difficult to accomplish (item 9), the explanation of the Simple Past in a time setting characterized by temporal adverbial "last Easter" was the item where the testees performed best (item 2). Though the results might be due to the loss of concentration towards the end of the exam or might be coincidental. This assumption his assumption is probably not verifiable, because the contrast between correct and incorrect explanations appears too great to be accidental. Moreover, the performance is almost entirely reversed (item 2: 10 correct, 5 incorrect, item 9: 4 correct, and 11 incorrect) Within the framework of this paper these questions cannot be pursued any further.

71 1oo% = 4 OT- items ; 3 OT- items = 75%

72 Table 24 raises another issue. The fat that rules, not sufficiently explained rules, are counted as errors, even though they reveal that a person has explicit knowledge, but can just not provide with the proper words of explanation, has led to a special investigation. Its results can also be found in Table 23. Of interest was how many testees, in fact, offered explanations fitting into this problematic category (category b). When claiming that the inability to phrase a rule correctly does not automatically indicate a student's explicit lack of declarative knowledge, the entire analysis approach and its results would change considerably, if a notable number of testees had committed this error (50%+). The data illustrates within the FT- category one third (33.3%) of all FT-errors belonging to the critical error type and 31.1 % of the OT-errors. Also about one third of each of these tense categories errors belong to the critical group. Reconsiderations about this error categorization would probably lead to interesting results in the search for the transferability of competence to performance. This excursion into a special kind of error cause analysis cannot be commenced any further within the frame of the paper. But it is suitable to raise critical consciousness of this aspect of error definition.

73 loo% = number of will future used individually by each testee

74 Table 29 serves as data basis for the following two tables. Charts 27 and 28 illustrate this information graphically for better orientation.

75 It was also the structure which was most often overgeneralized in the PGT. See annotation 68.

76 As for facilitating the use of the learned structure in general (hypothesis IVc), however, the (R+C+) knowledge type seemed more promising. Apparently, this difference is due to the focus on correct language features in hypothesis VI.

77 Seven hypotheses = four major, three sub- hypotheses(IVb, VII, VIII)

78 This negative result about hypothesis VIVc would be interpreted by Krashen as belong the result of too much cognitively oriented teaching. He would argue that the students did not apply this future tense structure successfully in the LWT, because they had consciously "learned" and not naturally "acquired" the knowledge about the feature. As according to his theory only "acquired knowledge" leads to correct communicative performance, this result would not surprise Krashen and his associates.

79 This result also supports the general assumption made in hypothesis VI V, according to which the PGT results are of secondary concern compared to the IET results.

80 The fact that this hypothesis with the only proof of competence being documented in the proper completion of the correction task in the IET, has been confirmed also supports the statement presented in hypothesis VIV. The results of the PGT really seem less important correct performance in the LWT than the performance in the IET.

81 To perform 83.3% correctly with 28 attempts to use the future tenses in the letter would equal 15 x correct and 3x wrong. This shows that performing 14 FTs correctly cannot score higher, even though the 100% correct application seems to be the better performance at first.

82 This figure is based on 100% = 22 hypotheses sub-hypotheses counted fully for this matter, eight of 22 = 36.4%

83 To see the reason for these many "neutral" hypotheses in the great number of hypotheses stated is not considered justifiable at this point. Only if these results remained the same after a larger test population had been investigated, would these critical hypotheses qualify as ineffective. This collection of hypotheses developed out of the attempt to look at every scientifically possible version of answers and solutions. To be satisfied with less would have been considered an incomplete fulfillment of the task to provide information about the transfer of competence to performance.

84 I consider this an interesting result, because statistically speaking, 15 productions provide enough data to speak of generally valuable results and conclusions.

List of Abbreviations

Where it does not interfere with clarity, an abbreviation such as the ones listed below will be used:

LAD	language acquisition device (Chomsky, Krashen)
FL	foreign language
L1	first language, native language
L2	second language
PGT	passive grammar test
IET	implicit/explicit test
LWT	letter writing test
CT	competence test
CTs	competence tests
PT	performance test
PTs	performance tests
FT	future tense
FTs	future tenses
OT	other tense
OTs	other tenses

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I herewith declare that I have only used the sources listed in the bibliography and that I have written this thesis without anyone's help.

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